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ABSTRACT

This report presents the proceedings of a 1978 international seminar held in Berlin which was convened by the German Foundation for International Development (Deutsche Stiftung fur internationale Entwicklung) in cooperation with Teheran's International Institute for Adult Literacy Methods. The designated purpose of the seminar was to examine current needs assessment and curriculum development practices, to identify appropriate and effective methods and approaches for curriculum development of basic education programs, and to guide the development of a curriculum development handbook for basic education programs. The first of three sections reviews background information on the preparation and organization of the seminar. In section 2 abstracts of ten case studies from Asia, Africa, and Latin America are presented. Also included are reports from the seminar working groups, suggestions for improved curriculum development practices, and recommendations for the proposed monograph on curriculum development. Section 3 presents a tentative outline for the monograph. Guidelines for the preparation of case studies and a progress report on the series "Literacy in Development" are included in the appendixes. (CSS)

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REPORT

GERMAN FOUNDATION FOR INTERNATIONAL DEVELOPMENT

EDUCATION, SCIENCE AND DOCUMENTATION DIVISION

AND THE

INTERNATIONAL INSTITUTE FOR ADULT LITERACY METHODS

TEHERAN / IRAN

INTERNATIONAL SEMINAR ON

CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT FOR BASIC EDUCATION PROGRAMMES

12 TO 21 JUNE 1978 IN BERLIN (WEST)

FINAL REPORT

EDITED BY DAVID KAHLER

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH,
EDUCATION & WELFARE
NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF
EDUCATION

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FOREWORD

The Seminar on 'Curriculum Development for Basic Education Programmes' was the fourth meeting jointly organized by the German Foundation for International Development (DSE) and the International Institute for Adult Literacy Methods (IIALM). These meetings have served two related purposes. First, they have promoted discussion and dialogue on important and problematic issues related to the design and operation of basic education programmes. Secondly, they have contributed to and guided the developemnt of the training monograph series, 'Literacy in Development', commissioned by the IIALM and being published in several language editions by agencies co-operating with the Institute.

The meeting featured in this report was based upon ten case studies of functional literacy projects prepared by authors from Africa, Asia and Latin America. During the course of the Seminar, the authors and other participants debated the merits and problems of different approaches to the process of curriculum development. This discussion highlighted differences in methodology and approach as well as sharply divergent ideas on the underlying purposes basic education should serve and the various forms which it might appropriately take. In spite of this diversity of view, there was agreement on certain guiding principles which were considered to be widely, if not universally, applicable. The need to actively engage the individuals and communities to be served by an educational programme in its design, operation and evaluation was one such point of consensus. The requirement for careful language studies as a pre-requisite to the development of curriculum materials was another. Although, it was felt that the detailed procedures of curriculum development must be suited to the particularities of a situation, it was considered that, at a more abstract level, there were general models or approaches which could inform and guide the curriculum development process.

The development of the 'handbook' or monograph on curriculum development was given careful attention in the Seminar. It was recommended that the monograph should present the guiding principles and general procedures of curriculum development. In doing so, however, the authors were cautioned not to lose touch with the diverse experiences presented in the case studies, but rather to draw extensively upon these to illustrate their points and, where appropriate, to provide examples of different approaches and possibilities of which curriculum developers should be aware. It was agreed by all that the monograph could not - and should not - seek to be a 'cookbook' offering step-by-step instructions on how to 'whip-up' a curriculum. Curriculum development is essentially a creative process, but one constrained by technical criteria and directed to the service of specified educational objectives.

The purpose of the monograph or handbook was seen to be that of sharing as widely as possible the experience and lessons of the seminar and the case studies upon which it was based. The series 'Literacy in Development' has received wide support in both developed and developing nations. In particular, the German Foundation for International Development (DSE) and the German Adult Education Association (DVV) have contributed to the development of the series through the organization of meetings, such as the present one, as well as having made extensive use of the monographs in training workshops in Africa. The underlying principle upon which the series is founded - namely, the urgent need to exchange and synthesize educational experiences - is widely endorsed. The recently published report of the Director-General of Unesco to the General Conference on ways of intensifying the struggle against illiteracy - (20C/71), for example, proposes an acceleration in the exchange of literacy and basic education experiences among developing countries as an essential measure for promoting more effective literacy programmes. The ultimate test of the monograph will be, of course, not its potential usefulness, but the extent and degree of success with which it is actually used. This is a matter which deserves to be evaluated.

The co-organizers of this meeting have found their co-operation to be of mutual benefit in fulfilling their respective objectives. For the Foundation, the dialogue which it seeks to promote on critical development issues has been enriched by the case materials commissioned by the IIALM. Moreover, the ideas put forward and conclusions reached in the meeting will be shared with the wide readership to whom the monographs will be disseminated. For the Institute, the Seminar has provided an opportunity to discuss in depth a variety of case materials and to develop, on the basis of these discussions, a plan for a monograph taking explicit account of both the common problems curriculum developers confront and the divergent circumstances under which they work.

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0. SUMMARY

This report presents the proceedings of an international seminar, "Curriculum Development for Basic Education Programmes", which was held at Villa Borsig, Reiherwerder, Berlin (West) from 12 to 21 June 1978. The meeting was convened by the German Foundation for International Development (DSE) in cooperation with the International Institute for Adult Literacy Methods, (IIALM), Tehran, to examine current practice in the area of needs assessment and curriculum development, to identify appropriate and effective methods and approaches for dealing with curriculum development in basic education programmes and to guide the development of a handbook on curriculum development for basic education programmes incorporating the lessons of the case materials examined and the experiences of the seminar.

Documentation for the meeting included ten case studies which had been commissioned by the IIALM.

Section I of this report reviews the background of the seminar, the commissioning of the case studies, the purposes and the programme of the seminar, and lists the documentation presented during the course of the meeting.

In Section II of the report, abstracts of the ten case studies are presented along with reports of the seminar working groups, suggestions for improved curriculum development practices and recommendations for the proposed monograph on curriculum development in basic education programmes.

Section III of the report presents a tentative outline for the monograph.

Guidelines for the Preparation of Case Studies and a Progress Report on the Series "Literacy in Development" are included as Annexes.

SECTION 1: THE SEMINAR

Preparation and Organization

1.1 Background

1.2 The Case Studies

1.3 A Framework of Curriculum Development

1.4 Purposes of the Seminar

1.5 Organization of the Seminar

1.6 Programme

1.7 Participants

1.8 Documentation

SECTION 1: THE SEMINAR

Preparation and Organization

1.1 Background

During the past decade, increasing attention has been given to the planning and implementation of programmes of basic education in the developing nations of Africa, Asia and Latin America. Typically, basic education is designed to meet the immediate needs or common problems of the individuals to whom it is addressed. In preparing such programmes, it is important that the needs of the target population are accurately assessed and that resultant curricula and instructional materials not only provide relevant and useful training but do so in a manner which is effective, efficient and appealing to programme participants. Although there is agreement on these requirements, achieving them in practice has presented difficulties.

The seminar, Curriculum Development for Basic Education Programmes, was convened at Villa Borsig, Reiherwerder, Berlin (West) from 12 to 22 June, 1978, to analyse current practice in the area of needs assessment and curriculum development in order to identify effective methods and approaches for dealing with these matters. The seminar was organized by the German Foundation for International Development (DSE) in co-operation with the International Institute for Adult Literacy Methods, (IIALM), Tehran. As is noted in the following paragraphs, seminar discussions were based on case materials which were commissioned for the seminar.

1.2 The Case Studies

In a 1976 meeting held to discuss the development of training materials for basic education programmes, participants expressed the opinion that it was necessary to approach the subject of curriculum development through the study of case materials representing experience deriving from a variety of geographic, cultural and educational situations. At the same time, it was felt that the case studies could serve as an adequate basis for the development of a monograph on curriculum development in basic education which would synthesize and diffuse the lessons from the cases under study.

The proposed monograph is to be included in the series, Literacy in

Development, published by the International Institute for Adult Literacy Methods, and supported by the German Foundation for International Development (DSE), the German Adult Education Association (DVV), the Arab Literacy and Adult Education Organization (ARLO), the Regional Council for Adult Education and Literacy in Africa (CREAA), and the Iberoamerican Office for Education (OEI).

The series, Literacy in Development, is addressed to the needs of intermediate level literacy workers in the developing world. Each Monograph in the series treats an operation basic to the conduct of literacy and other basic education programmes. The purpose of the series is to bring to middle level literacy workers soundly based and simply written guidance relating to the problems which they face in their dayly work. It is recognized that the needs of those working in the field of literacy are both complex and varied. However, basic education and literacy work in all societies presents a set of similar problems and requirements. The series seeks to suggest how certain of these problems may be addressed.

It was intended that the case studies would survey current practice in a variety of basic education programmes, specifically programmes in the field of functional literacy. The criteria for the selection of projects for study can be summarized as follows:

- first, that the case selected for study should be neither so small in scope as to be insignificant nor so large as to be unmanageable;
- secondly, the project under study should have had a history of at least three years and that good documentation reflecting that history be available;
- thirdly, it was suggested that the project chosen for the study be one which was considered innovative in developing instructional materials; and
- fourthly, that the project chosen for the study be one which provides basic education in the framework of a broader rural development effort.

A set of guidelines was prepared by the IIALM to assist authors in the development of the case studies. This was done in an effort to assure that the studies would be comparable in approach. These guidelines were stated to be suggestive rather than prescriptive; their purpose was to guide and not to restrict authors in the presentation of the studies. (A copy of the guidelines is included in Appendix 1 of this report.)

Case studies were prepared by staff members of educational agencies or persons designated by those agencies in the following countries: Brazil, Burma, Colombia, India, Iran, Kenya, Mali, Sudan, Tanzania, Thailand. Four of the studies were commissioned by the IIALM under contract with Unesco and were discussed earlier by a panel of experts in Asia (Bangkok) to review the literacy situation in Asia and prepare recommendations for the consideration of a Regional Meeting of Ministers of Education.

1.3 A Framework for Curriculum Development

An extensive literature describing the process of curriculum development in school education exists. The material available on curriculum development for basic education programmes for adults and out-of-school youths is relatively limited. Moreover, much of what is available has been adapted from practices in formal education and may not be appropriate to the rather different circumstances and requirements of basic education.

It is nonetheless helpful to review existing literature. This review indicates a consensus as to certain steps which must be considered. Among these are:

- Identification and specification of educational goals and objectives;
- Assessment of needs and identification of interest of the learners concerned;
- Formulation of teaching-learning objectives corresponding to the needs and interest at the local level and comparable with nationally developed educational goals;
- Development of relevant content, appropriate teaching-learning methods and suitable materials;
- Recruitment and training of teaching personnel;
- Piloting and revision of materials, methods and approaches;
- Implementation of the curriculum on a larger audience;
- Evaluation at each stage of the curriculum development process.

It was suggested that particular attention be given to the areas of needs assessment, identification of teaching-learning aims and objectives, production of educational materials and decisions on related teacher and student activities, the piloting of materials and the monitoring of the educational process.

As the success of an educational programme is a consequence of all the actions examined above - and perhaps others as well - curriculum development was considered during the seminar as a process of interrelated and mutually dependent steps.

1.4 Purposes of the Seminar

The purposes of the seminar were threefold:

- to analyze present practices and procedures for developing curriculum for literacy and related basic education programmes;
- to allow for the comparative study of curriculum development procedures; and
- to guide the development of a handbook on curriculum development for basic education and literacy programmes incorporating the lessons of the case studies and the experiences of the seminar.

It is expected that the handbook will provide those concerned with developing curricula in the fields of literacy and basic education with helpful suggestions and, to the extent possible, with lessons and insights deriving from the cases examined which are applicable, with appropriate modification and adaptation to a variety of situations and contexts.

1.5 Organization of the Seminar

The seminar was divided into three parts. In the first, participants engaged in the discussion of approaches to curriculum development as presented in the case studies. Each case study author then entertained questions relevant to his or her presentation.

In the second phase of the seminar, which was conducted in working groups, participants considered four of the basic steps in curriculum development which had been highlighted in the presentations of the case studies during the first phase:

- assessing learning needs and formulating learning objectives;

- translating teaching objectives into teaching-learning materials and activities;
- organizing the curriculum development process and implementing curricula; and
- evaluating the process and the products.

The purpose of this phase was to assure that the curriculum development procedures emerging from discussion in the first days of the seminar were applicable to the development of curricula for a wide range of situations and settings.

In the third phase of the seminar, the working groups reported their findings to the plenary. The aim of this phase was to reconsider the processes involved in curriculum development for basic education and literacy and seek consensus on the steps included therein. Participants engaged in a discussion of strategies for the promotion of better curriculum development practices and the role of training as a possible strategy and suggestions and recommendations were made regarding the proposed handbook. The third phase of the seminar closed with a discussion of co-operation between the Federal Republic of Germany and the developing world in the field of functional literacy and basic education programmes. Representatives of German assistance organizations, foundations, and the Ministry of Foreign Affairs were present at those discussions.

1.6 Programme

Monday, 12 June

10:00 a.m.	Opening statements by Dr. Gerhard Fritz Director General, DSE Dr. John W. Ryan Director, IIALM
	Introduction of participants
11:15 a.m.	Coffee break
11:45 a.m.	Phase 1
	Purpose and programme of the seminar Introduction by Dr. Josef Müller
1:00 p.m.	Lunch
3:00 p.m.	Guidelines for presentation of case studies Introduction by David Kahler
	Presentation of Case studies:
	India Presentation by Dr. Anita Dighe
4:30 p.m.	Coffee break
5:00 p.m.	Kenya Presentation by Joe Dondo and Tom Mulusa
	Thailand Presentation by Sunthorn Sunanchai
7:00 p.m.	Dinner
8:00 p.m.	Welcome party

Tuesday, 13 June

9:00 a.m.	Presentation of case studies continued
	Brazil Presentation by Dr. Renato Barbosa
	Tanzania Presentation by Mary Eyakuze and Jacob Ilkiuyoni
11:00 a.m.	Coffee break
11:30 a.m.	Tanzania Presentation continued
1:00 p.m.	Lunch

3:00 p.m.	Tanzania Presentation continued
4:30 p.m.	Coffee break
5:00 p.m.	Iran Presentation by Mino Mirzadeh
6:00 p.m.	Mali Presentation by Ouane Adama

Wednesday, 14 June

9:00 a.m.	Burma Presentation by U Thaung Tut
10:30 a.m.	Colombia Presentation by Dr. Carlos Murcia
11:30 a.m.	Coffee break
12:00 a.m.	Sudan Presentation by Gamal Idris el Hibir
1:00 p.m.	Lunch
Afternoon	free
2:00 p.m.	Bus to town (Station Zoo)
9:00 p.m.	Return by bus from Station Zoo

Thursday, 15 June

9:00 a.m.	Findings of case studies Introduction by David Kahler A model for curriculum development - Presentation by Dr. Josef Müller
11:00 a.m.	Coffee break
11:30 a.m.	A commentary upon the model and the case study findings by Professor H. S. Bhola
1:00 p.m.	Lunch
3:00 p.m.	Phase 2 Presentation of topics for working groups by David Kahler Constitution of working groups 1. Assessing learner needs and formulating teaching objectives 2. Translating teaching objectives into teaching-learning materials and activities

Thursday, 15 June

	3. Organizing the curriculum development process and implementing new curricula
	4. Evaluating the process and the products
	Group work
4:30 p.m.	Coffee break
5:00 p.m.	Working groups (continued)
7:00 p.m.	Dinner reception given by Dr. Gerhard Fritz, Director General, DSE

Friday, 16 June

9:00 a.m.	Working groups (continued)
11:00 a.m.	Coffee break
11:30 a.m.	Working groups (continued)
1:00 p.m.	Lunch
Afternoon	free
2:00 p.m.	Bus to Station Zoo
6:30 p.m.	Return from Station Zoo
7:30 p.m.	Dinner

Saturday, 17 June

9:00 a.m.	Working groups continued
11:00 a.m.	Coffee break
11:30 a.m.	Working groups continued
1:00 p.m.	Lunch
3:00 p.m.	Drafting of group reports
4:30 p.m.	Coffee break
5:00 p.m.	Drafting of group reports continued
7:00 p.m.	Dinner

Sunday, 18 June

9:00 a.m.	Sight-seeing-tour to Berlin (West)
1:00 p.m.	Lunch
2.15 p.m.	Walk to Greenwich Promenade at Lake Tegel
3:00 p.m.	Boat trip on Lake Tegel Walk back to Villa Borsig
7:00 p.m.	Dinner

Monday, 19 June	Phase 3
11:30 a.m.	Distribution and discussion of group reports
1:00 p.m.	Lunch
3:00 p.m.	Discussion of group reports continued
4:30 p.m.	Coffee break
5:00 p.m.	Discussion of group reports continued
7:00 p.m.	Dinner

Tuesday, 20 June	
9:00 a.m.	Discussion of group reports continued
10:00 a.m.	Discussion of strategies for better curriculum development policies
11:00 a.m.	Coffee break
11:30 a.m.	Discussion continued
1:00 p.m.	Lunch
3:00 p.m.	Suitability of the handbook in training situations. Organization and treatment of content.
4:30 p.m.	Coffee break
5:30 p.m.	Bus to Hardy's Restaurant
7:30 p.m.	Opera "The Elopement from the Seraglio" by Wolfgang Amadeus Mozart
22:30 p.m.	Return from Opera House by Bus

Wednesday, 21 June	
10:00 a.m.	Reflections on the meeting and proposals for future action in the field of training and information dissemination Dr. John Ryan
11:00 a.m.	Coffee break
11:30 a.m.	Progress Report on the Series "Literacy in Development" Professor H.S. Bhola
1:00 p.m.	Lunch

Wednesday, 21 June	continued
3:00 p.m.	Use of the monograph on curriculum development in future training programmes Dr. Josef Müller
4:00 p.m.	Press conference
	Closure of the seminar

1.7 Participants

Twenty seven participants from thirteen countries participated in the seminar. They represented national and international organizations working in basic education and literacy programmes in the developing world, universities engaged in the training of literacy and basic education personnel and in curriculum development for basic education, foundations and research organizations involved in the conduct of social and educational development projects, and the German Foreign Ministry in Bonn.

Participants were selected on the basis of their ability to contribute to a discussion of curriculum development in basic education programmes and/or their personal capacity as case study authors. It was also the intention of the organizers to have representatives from a variety of backgrounds and different geographical areas in order to provide a good sampling of opinion and experience.

List of participants

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1.8 Documentation

Documentation for the seminar included the following material:

Case Studies

"Professional Semi-qualification Project, Professional Training Methodology by Occupational Families in Santa Catarina State, Brazil" by Renato Barbosa, Special Studies and Projects Group Officer, Professionalization Management, MOBRAL.

"The Development of Curriculum and Reading Materials for Literacy Classes Amongst Peasants and Workers" by U Thaung Tut, Director, Basic Education Department, Ministry of Education, Burma.

"Functional Literacy Pilot Project for Adults, Risaralda Department, Colombia" by Division of Non-formal and Adult Education, Ministry of Education, Bogota, Colombia.

"Curriculum Development for an Experimental Non-formal Education Project for Rural Women in Mahbubnagar District, Andhra Pradesh, India" by Anita Dighe, Council for Social Development, New Delhi, India.

"The Experimental Functional Literacy Project for the Social and Economic Promotion of Rural Women in Saveh Shahrestan, Iran" by Minoo Mirzadeh, National Centre for Adult Education and Training, Tehran, Iran.

"The Special Rural Development (SRDP) Functional Literacy Project in Mbere, Embu District, Kenya" by Joseph Dondo and Tom Mulusa, Institute for Adult Studies, University of Nairobi, Nairobi, Kenya.

"Analysis of the Functional Literacy Experience in a Grourdnut and Cereal Operation in Mali" by Adama Berthe, Director, Centre for Functional Literacy and Applied Linguistics, Bamako, Mali.

"Social Welfare Programmes for Women, Gezira Scheme" by Gamal Idris El Hibir, Adult Education Section, Gezira Scheme, Sudan.

"Needs Assessment in Curriculum Development in Tanzania" by Mary J. Eyakuze and Jacob A.E. Ilkiuyoni, National Literacy Centre, Mwanza, Tanzania.

"Functional Literacy Programme Activities in Region Eight" by Sunthorn Sunanchai, Director, Adult Education Division, Ministry of Education, Bangkok, Thailand.

Other Materials

"Curriculum Development for Functional Literacy, Notes on a Dialectical Model" by H.S. Bhola.

"A Framework for Curriculum Development" prepared in pre-seminar activities by members of the Organizing Committee.

"Needs Assessment and Learner Analysis: A Working Paper" by Josef Müller.

"Discussion Questions for Working Groups" compiled by David Kahler.

"Curriculum Construction for Non-Formal Basic Education Programmes. A Skeleton" by Josef Müller.

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SECTION 2: THE SEMINAR

Content and Proceedings

2.1 Phase One: Presentation of the Case Studies

As mentioned earlier, the first phase of the seminar involved the presentation of the case studies by authors or representatives of the organizations commissioned to prepare the studies. After each presentation, the author or presenter entertained questions relevant to the study and the approach to curriculum development described therein.

In this section of the seminar report, abstracts of the ten case studies are given. Due to the bulk of the studies, it is not possible to print the entire studies as a part of this report. The International Institute for Adult Literacy Methods does, however, plan to publish the studies as a separate publication at a future date.

Also included in this section of the report is a short paper, "Curriculum Development for Functional Literacy, Notes on a Dialectical Model" which was presented by Professor H.S. Bhola, professor of education at Indiana University and Series Editor of the training monograph series, Literacy in Development.

2.1.1 Brazil

Professional Semi-qualification Project, Professional Training
Methodology by Occupational Families,
Santa Catarina State, Brazil

The Professional Management Programmes of MOBRAL, the Brazilian Literacy Movement, began in 1974 when educational planners realized the growing need for providing continuing educational offerings for graduates of MOBRAL's literacy courses. An assessment of the vast number of training activities which were being conducted in the country and the lack of co-operation amongst the organizations conducting that training prompted MOBRAL's action.

The continuing education offering, in this instance, is a multipurpose training called "occupational families". The objective of the training by means of occupational families is founded on the instruction of trainable and employable people for more rapid entry into the labour force by providing them with a polyvalent professional training in which similar occupations are grouped together. It was felt that such a training methodology respected the participation of new literates in the existing social and economical world. The methodology was intended to integrate the functional principles which would guarantee MOBRAL's clientele educational as well as methodological continuity.

The focal point of training by occupational families is to transmit to the trainee knowledge and practical procedures common to a group of related occupations as well as certain notions regarding hygiene and safety at work. By incorporating principles of functionality and acceleration with the aspect of polyvalence, the methodology makes it possible for the trainee to obtain more adequate professional training which will enable his or her eventual participation in qualification courses for specific occupations.

The Professional Semi-qualification Project in Santa Catarina State was of two phases. The first, which was experimental in nature, was designed to try out the new training methodology, occupational families, on 1.200 rural workers. The second, or operational phase, was designed to reach an additional 3.450 workers, Santa Catarina State was chosen for the pilot project as it was the first state to have reduced illiteracy to under 10%. Fourty municipalities were chosen as the project area on the basis of concentration of literate rural workers and predominance of rural work activities.

The methodology used in the pilot project was elaborated by a technical group consisting of an agronomist, a social worker, a human resources expert and an administrator. MOBRAL authorities in the State identified all agencies which could assist either financially or materially in the conduct of the programme. Agreements were signed with local and State organizations for the provision of staff who would serve as the polyvalent instructors for the course.

Needs assessment was conducted in the project area through the study of basic documents on the existing demographic, economic and institutional variables. The identification of the occupational families - as an aggregation of occupations which show similarities in their element - took into consideration existing local conditions, regional variables and government directives for agriculture and cattlebreeding. Four occupational families were identified: farm labourers in food producing plants; farm labourers in temperate climate fruitculture; farm labourers in cattlebreeding;

and farm labourers in timber-producing species.

Basic occupational analysis was conducted, principal tasks were identified and common operations which make up an occupational group were selected. The basic occupational analysis was then verified by the Association of Agricultural Engineers of the State through field research on 100 farms within the target area. Results were then tabulated and the final analysis was made by MOBRAL staff.

Upon the basis of the work, MOBRAL staff elaborated the curriculum for the project. Didactic units were composed of the following aspects: task identification; task description; sequencing of operations; key operations, teaching techniques; place of training; didactic materials and allocation of time. Flexibility was built into the materials which allowed teachers to conduct classes as they wished. Some preferred to begin by developing the whole theoretical basis while others mixed the theoretical with the practical.

Instructors for the pilot programme were agricultural engineers, agricultural technicians and veterinarians from participating agencies in the State. Their training consisted of the basics of the training methodology developed for "occupational families", principles of group dynamics, evaluation techniques and teaching practices.

The programme was implemented by MOBRAL personnel at the State level in co-operation with municipal authorities, municipal MOBRAL committees, rural labour unions, credit associations and the Federation of Agriculture. The organizations were responsible for conducting the motivational campaign, for recruiting learners, securing meeting places, etc. and many contributed financially and materially to the conduct of the programme.

Evaluation of the experimental phase of the project was considered an on-going process and one in which the instructors played a major role. Observations and answers provided by the instructors indicate that the main purpose of the project, that of validating the training methodology by occupational families, was a success. Evaluation findings highlight the interest shown in the project by prospective employers in the region. Many course participants entered the active labour force before the course ended. Local agricultural organizations offered prizes for highest crop production among course participants and interest in the programme remained high from its inception to its closure.

Further expansion of the programme will depend on the continued study of the needs of the rural labour force, the exploration of additional occupational families, and the possibilities of using institutional resources - physical, human and financial - available for the organization of integrated projects.

2.1.2 Burma

The Development of Curriculum and Reading Materials for Literacy Classes among Peasants and Rural Workers

At the time of the socialist revolution in Burma in 1962, the presence of a large numer of illiterates, especially in the work force in rural areas, was seen as a hinderance to building a socialist System, to increasing productivity, to achieving national development and to changing illiterates into "new men". The Socialist Republic of the Union of Burma adopted a two pronged attack on the problem by opening more schools every year, thus facilitating the instruction of compulsory primary education, and by launching a literacy campaign based on the mobilization and organization of the masses.

The literacy campaign, which is centrally administered, is based upon (a) a mass movement, (b) with community participation, (c) using local resources, (d) on a voluntary basis, (e) in a selected region, (f) throughout the year, (g) until the whole campaign area becomes literate. The campaign is implemented at the local level by literacy committees through organizational power.

As the campaign is voluntary and supported by a mass movement, grass roots level planning and preparation are required prior to the opening of a class. Local cadres are organized for teaching, facilities and resources are identified and learners are recruited.

Under the direction of the Central Literacy Committee, each State or Division has its own literacy committee and within that structure, township committees are formed. Likewise, literacy committees are set up at the grassroots level.

Burma has opted for a different approach to curriculum development for its mass campaign. The basic concept underlying the Burmese approach, with its concentration on literacy per se, nor the functional approach based on work oriented literacy were appropriate in their entirety in the context of the prevailing political, economical and social conditions in the Socialist Republic of the Union of Burma.

Instead, what has evolved is an approach which deals first with the acquisition of the three R's and later develops reading habits by introducing work oriented literature and information issued by agencies outside the Central Literacy Committee and supplementary reader prepared by Central Literacy Committee staff.

Since the curriculum is intended for the mass of the population, rather than a selected occupational group or community, it was necessary to develop a common and uniform curriculum. In doing so, curriculum developers within the Curriculum Development and Production of Teaching materials Sub-committee (CDPTMS), with the help of local communities, conducted surveys and observations in selected rural areas in order to assess and establish learner needs, interests and the environmental situation. These findings were incorporated into the development of curricular materials for both literacy and post literacy activities. The findings of these studies showed that the common interests and needs of rural adults were not so diversified and were mainly clustered around village life and agricultural practices, and were linked to religion, entertainment (utilization of leisure time) and social customs.

The guiding principles of curriculum development for functional literacy work in Burma are that literacy can help national socio-economic development policies, especially in the field of agriculture; that organizational power is the key motivating force in assuring participation; and that literacy through the use of the Burmese approach would be achieved in a shorter period of time than through functional literacy approaches.

The sole responsibility for curriculum development rests with the Curriculum Development and Production of Teaching Materials Sub-committee. It is not a permanent committee nor can it concentrate exclusively on the area of curriculum development.

As a result, the curriculum which has evolved is one which builds upon the concepts of organizational power of the literacy committees and the nature and the structure of the Burmese language. The design of the present primer is based upon the sound-symbol transference method combined with contents based on common social, cultural and economical needs and interests of adult learners. The materials currently in use have been revised and modified several times since they were originally prepared in 1969. All revisions have been based on problems encountered during the teaching-learning process by both teachers and learners. The process of on-going evaluation allows for the participation of the committees at different levels in the revision and reinventing of the curriculum.

The teaching methodology neither attempts to teach nor requires the adult learner to learn all 33 symbols in the Burmese alphabet. Instead, only the simplest and most commonly used symbols are taught. The method takes the learners straight into the symbol-sound production stage instead of requiring them to spell out or name the letter before producing the sound it represents. It is felt that such an approach gives adult learners an immediate sense of achievment.

Major problems arising out of the campaign are those related to staffing, to finance, and to curriculum development. There is a lack of professionally trained teachers, supervisors and co-ordinators for the literacy campaign. The voluntary nature of the teaching staff and the short period of time given to their training are seen as major areas for improvement.

The problem of finance is one which is not of a governmental nature, but rather that of a voluntary organization which must finance the publication of teaching materials, setting up village newspapers and providing follow up materials.

2.1.3 Colombia
Adult Functional Education Pilot Project,
Risaralda Department, Colombia

Antecedents for the Adult Functional Education Pilot Project can be found in earlier national and internationally sponsored projects and training programmes. In the late 1960's and early '70's, adult education gained prominance in Colombia but no effective way could be found for mobilizing existing national resources to resolve the problem of illiteracy which is greatest among the rural poor and marginal city dwellers.

In 1973, the Ministry of Education decided to concentrate its resources in one department, Risaralda, in order to deal with the educational problems of the rural poor. Risaralda was chosen because of the high degree of co-operation already existing between inhabitants of the department and regional institutions and initiative taken by adult education departmental agencies in facilitating the inception of a special programme.

Planners felt that functional literacy could be the answer: general knowledge must be tied to vocational training. Educational programmes must prepare the learner for work within his or her environment and for playing a social, civic and economical role that would go beyond the limitations of rudimentary literacy. The programme was designed as a three year pilot project of which the major objectives were: to intensify existing activities which would help reduce illiteracy in the Department; to integrate Basic Education teams more fully into community development and adult education work; to begin functional literacy training; to encourage more effective co-ordination among agencies working in the field of adult education and community development; and to improve didactic materials and work toward the expansion of the total project.

The pilot project was to be carried out by basic education teams which were composed of an educator, an agricultural expert, and health and home economics workers. The teams, which had received special training in field operational seminar situations, were responsible for the design and conduct of needs assessment in their respective communities, the identification of problem areas, and the production and testing of teaching materials and activities. Each team co-ordinated its work with regional staff of the Ministry of Education and with municipal and village literacy committees.

Course contents were based upon the results of the needs assessment. The criteria used in curriculum selection were open education and participant involvement. The methodology used in the project consisted of demonstration, conceptualization and practice. Demonstration allowed the session to start from a real situation using the observation and interpretation of a fact, situation or activity that was genuinely interesting to the adults. Conceptualization allowed the session to analyze a specific fact or situation dealt with in the demonstration using dialogue, analysis, reflection, and discussion in addition to abstract symbols, that is, writing and mathematics. Practice by the adults allowed them to develop their skills, attitudes and aptitudes regarding the subject dealt with in the demonstration. The aim of such a methodology was to make the adult return to his own reality with his behaviour altered - spontaneously and consciously using what he had learned.

Materials developed for the project included individual reading sheets which drew upon linguistic surveys made at the time of needs assessment. The didactic structure of the sheets combined analytical methods and were designed to aid the instructor in his or her teaching task. The team also learned to make and use reading charts for different levels of new readers. Members learned to structure experience charts to stimulate participants in their reading, writing and compositions.

All materials developed for the pilot programme followed a series of basic tasks which were planned in the following way: formulation of draft instruments; testing and revision of instruments; instrument adjustment and final formulation; content and presentation provision; reproduction of necessary amount; and on-site use.

The Risaralda pilot project was considered innovative and successful in the ways in which it was able to co-ordinate activities and join the efforts of the different sectors which had been working separately on similar programmes. The techniques used in the Risaralda project offered specialized methodological training for the fundamental education team staff as well as training in developing and using suitable materials. Programme organizers considered the most important innovation to be the practical application of a methodology propagated by Unesco at the theoretical level.

Participants rated the methodology highly. They pointed to its simplicity and clarity and to the fact that it made learning easy. The integration of theory and practice, the relationship between teacher and learner, the work done in groups, and the participation of women in the programme were other positive aspects of the programme which were noted.

2.1.4 India

Non-formal Education Project for Rural Women in Mahbubnagar District, Andhra Pradesh, India.

During the past three decades, the Government of India and private organizations within the country have attempted several educational projects geared to the needs of pregnant and lactating mothers and to new born children. Despite these efforts, the results have fallen short of the targets which were set and malnutrition among mothers and children, high rates of foetal deaths during pregnancy and other problems of maternal and child health continue to present major obstacles.

The Council for Social Development, a non-government social science research organization, has long been concerned about the problems of maternal and child health. In 1971, staff members who have reviewed the work done and being done in India in the fields of functional literacy and maternal and child health, nutrition and family planning came to the conclusion that an integrated approach was necessary for tackling the problem. It was also found that there was concurrence with the policies of the Government of India that also favoured integrated programmes. It was noted that one of the major barriers to the development of integrated programmes of education, health and nutrition was the low level of literacy amongst rural women, which was as low as 12,9 % in 1971.

For these reasons, the Council thought that an experimental project that would test the effectiveness of functional literacy linked to the subject areas of health and nutrition, along with integrated services, would be a way to proceed. The experimental programme was in operation from 1972 to 1975 and was designed to investigate the most effective way of bringing a basic package of maternal and child health services to the three most vulnerable groups in rural areas: pregnant women, lactating mothers and young children. The project was supported by UNICEF and sponsored by the Department of Social Welfare of the Government of India. It was of two phases, the first involving eight villages, and the second which was expanded to include 22 villages.

The project was conducted in Mahbubnagar district of Andhra Pradesh in the south of India in an area which is drought prone and considered socially backward. Female literacy in the area was only 4 %.

The basic package of integrated services offered by the programme had three components: an educational programme to arouse the interest of rural women in problems relating to pregnancy, childbirth, lactation, child health and to focus their attention on practical problems; a medical programme which offered antenatal, natal and post-natal services to mothers and infants; and a supplementary feeding programme to bridge the most critical nutritional gaps in the diets of pregnant women, lactating mothers and young children.

Four experimental groups were used to test the most effective way of delivering these services: functional literacy classes (FLIT); mother-child centres that had three programme components: nonformal education, health services and nutrition services (MCC); a combination of FLIT and MCC; and an experimental control group in comparable villages with no additional imputs other than the normal government development programmes.

Detailed needs assessment was conducted in order to identify problems relating to maternal and child health, to nutrition, to family planning and to literacy. Surveys included a group survey, an individual survey and an exploratory dietary investigation. The group survey involved 241 women in 27 villages. In this way, community norms on a variety of information was assessed. For the individual problem survey, contact was made with 7 or 8 women each in 21 villages. The object of this survey was to gather as much information as possible about nutritional and health practices so that results could be used in the preparation of educational materials. Some of the interviews were tape recorded so that linguistics could determine the syntax and structure of the local dialect. This again was used in the preparation of materials. Results of the dietetic survey were used for the feeding programme.

A workshop was conducted in order to develop the curriculum for non-formal and functional literacy programmes. Participants included writers, linguistics, adult educators, photographers, resource persons, consultants and directing staff of the project. Findings of the survey were made available to those participating in the workshop. Materials were developed along a problem solving approach. Materials developed included a 17 cardset, each having three to five cards, for use in functional literacy classes, teacher related materials, a source book on each topic discussed flash cards, photographs, charts and posters.

In addition, five folders written in simple language on the main problem areas of the curriculum were also used as neo-literate reading materials. It was envisaged that literacy training around maternal and child health including imparting of knowledge would lead to changes in attitudes and adoption of better practices.

The non-formal education programme was defined as a discussion-cum-demonstration programme structured specifically to meet the needs of mothers. The materials for this programme consisted of a discussion guide, a lesson plan and visual aids like photographs, charts and posters. The teaching strategy involved showing the visuals to participants and then having a discussion around the message in the visual, with the group then considering solutions to the problem and possible action to be taken.

The main functionaries of the two programmes were health educators and functional literacy teachers. Special training programmes were arranged for all field personnel. Initial training sessions were found to be weak and special materials were designed to supplement this training.

Materials were tested on a continuous basis. In the first phase of the programme, the curriculum was prepared on the basis of problems that were culled from the individual and group problem surveys, the dietary survey and from the taped interviews. Thereafter, a feedback system evaluated each lesson of the curriculum for revision or possible modification.

The experience of the first phase further helped in revising the materials. Three factors were taken into consideration in deciding upon the content of the lesson: the capacity of learners to receive and assimilate information; inherent handicaps that arose due to the social and economic conditions in which the participants lived; and the potential and the limitation of the educators in understanding the information contained in the lesson plans and their ability to use it effectively.

Continuous feedback ensured evaluation of each stage of the curriculum development process and the preparation of materials.

2.1.5 Iran

The Experimental Functional Literacy Project for the Social and Economic Promotion of Rural Women, Saveh Sharestan, Iran.

Despite literacy activities in Iran during the past thirty years, the rate of illiteracy amongst rural women remains high. Inadequate levels of education amongst women and the traditional attitudes towards their role in society has resulted in a low rate of economic participation of Iranian women.

Realizing the importance of promoting literacy amongst rural women and the need for designing special programmes for them, the Women's Organization of Iran, (WOI) formed a Research Group for Functional Literacy and Training in 1973 with the assistance of Unesco. This research group was responsible for the execution of the Experimental Functional Literacy Project for Women in Saveh Sharestan.

The objectives of the project were to determine the needs of rural women; develop effective methods and materials for the education and training of rural women throughout the country; and test the effectiveness of functional literacy methods in meeting the needs of rural women. Another major concern of the Research Group was to promote the social and economic integration of women into Iranian society.

The area chosen for the experimental project was the Sharestan of Saveh, some 120 kms south and east of Teheran. The Sharestan consists of 733 villages with a total rural population of 93.337 inhabitants. Of that number, 17.849 were literate (19,1 %). The literacy rate amongst women was only 4,9 %. In terms of economic participation of women, only 14,2 % of the women in the Sharestan were economically active.

The Experimental Project in Saveh tried to integrate literacy with various aspects of life of rural women so that they could apply it as a means for improving their social and economic lives.

In designing the educational programme for the Saveh project, an effort was made to determine the needs and the potential of the rural women in the area. An assessment was also made of the types of services which could be provided by in response to these needs and which could also improve the social and economic lives of the women.

Before the project was initiated, basic data was collected in the project area. One questionnaire was prepared by the Research and Training Unit to collect information about the population, about the potential of the area and of the existing services. The characteristics of rural women as teachers and mothers, as producers and consumers were considered in a second survey.

The content of the curriculum and the specification of measurable objectives was determined by the needs and interests of the target population. For this purpose, the degree of participant interest in each subject area was determined. The survey showed that rural women were interested in such areas as sewing, cooking, knitting, general information about Iran, carpet weaving, and communal hygiene.

An interdisciplinary team was responsible for the development of texts and teaching materials. Materials preparation was an on-going process and the materials underwent a number of revisions and modifications. The materials were developed on the basis of the principles of functionality, participation and integration. Besides relating the materials to the needs and problems of participants, an attempt was made to integrate all the educational materials into a meaningful whole.

Content of the instructional sequences was determined by the measurable objectives in relation to general and technical content and in conjunction with the teaching of the three R's. Thirty-three sequences were prepared. Each sequence consisted of three sections: general and technical content, language and mathematics. Teacher related materials were designed for each of the 33 sequences.

The Project was operational in 17 villages. Thirty-five instructors and six trainers were selected from amongst the women in the villages. A three week training programme was conducted in order to familiarize the instructional staff with principles of the programme and its curriculum. Inservice training every two weeks during the course of the programme facilitated regular and continuous training of the teaching staff.

From the beginning of the teaching process, evaluation was conducted on a continual basis. On the basis of the results of the evaluation, those instructional and organizational methods and techniques which were not effective were discontinued.

Since the ultimate objective of the Saveh Project was not merely to provide adult women with reading and writing skills or even increase their productivity, but to encompass their whole lives, the evaluation of the project was not a simple task. The evaluation system consisted of observations, identification of problems, collection of information and statistics for clarification of causes of problems, assessment of changes and continuous improvement of activities of the project. The evaluation system which collected statistics and information was useful in preventing the occurence and continuation of mistakes, in creating necessary changes and in directing the activities towards the achievement of the desired goals. Evaluation was carried out in three major educational domains: cognitive, affective and organizational.

The first stage of the Experimental Project ended in November of 1974 after six months of operation. The second phase of the Project lasted from November 1974 until May 1975. Both phases provided useful lessons for designing functional literacy programmes for rural women in Iran.

2.1.6 Kenya

The Special Rural Development Functional Literacy Project, Mbere, Embu District, Kenya.

In 1971, a Special Rural Development Programme (SRDP) was initiated in Mbere, Embu District. The area is one which receives little rainfall and consequently has low agricultural production. There is a high rate of male migration from the area and over 80 % of the population above age 20 is illiterate.

The SRDP was an attempt to bring about an integrated development in the rural areas through greater participation of the officials and of local people. Rural development had been defined by the Government of Kenya in 1970 as "the social and economic transformation of all its people". SRDP was especially designed to develop the capacity of the local people to work for themselves through the use of the training opportunities and intensive self-help programme. Of particular significance to rural development was the provision of training and education for adults. Functional literacy was geared to the improvement of the general occupations of the people and formed a major component of the SRDP.

The literacy programme did not concern itself only with teaching reading, writing and arithmetic but related these skills to other adult needs such as knowledge about changes in farming and other related areas, and attitudinal change.

In the functional literacy course the specific objective was for the adults to acquire a vocabulary of 1.500 words. This capacity was to be increased by a guided follow-up programme of one year's duration.

During 1969-1970, a Unesco expert attached to the Department of Social Services, which administered the programmes at the national level, carried out a survey to determine the viable developmental activities with which literacy could be integrated. The survey involved visits to provincial and district headquarters where meetings were held with planning officers, community development officers and adult education officers. During these meetings, developmental programmes which seemed to be hampered by the problem of illiteracy among the participants were discussed. Consequently, a functional literacy programme was designed in order to strengthen the literacy skills of farmers thus enabling them to be stronger members of newly formed co-operatives. Likewise, functional literacy was integrated with programmes designed for the introduction of new crops and improved agricultural practices. As malnutrition was another problem in the area, nutrition and family planning education were other programmes that could have a literacy component.

Needs assessment was conducted by a Unesco adviser based at national project headquarters. Information was collected through meetings with provincial and district officials. Little attention was given to consultation with the target population. Curriculum preparation was thus based on consultation at the provincial level. The foreign adviser had the overall responsibility for deciding the content and the methodology for the preparation of the curriculum.

Instructors for the programme were selected from amongst formal school teachers and agricultural and health extension agents. There was a trainer for every 10-15 centres whose job it was to train the instructors. Initial training for both the trainers and the instructors was given by the project officers from Nairobi, with the help of a Unesco adviser. Training included the preparation of basic materials to be used in the centres.

Monitoring of the Mbere Project was a concern of all of the staff ranging from those at the national headquarters down to the literacy class instructors in the centres. In 1975, the Institute of Development Studies at the University of Nairobi carried out an evaluation study of the SRDP. The study made far reaching recommendations on the basis of the shortcomings of the programme. The need for designing materials in the language used in Mbere was emphasized. This recommendation was made because of the choice of Kiswahili as the language in which the materials were written despite the fact that the majority of potential participants of literacy programme in Mbere did not speak the language.

The report also stated that perhaps the programme was a bit too ambitious as it not only tried to teach participants new knowledge about farming and household management at the same time as it endeavoured to teach them literacy but it also attempted to teach them a new language.

The report suggested that the primers should not have been translated from the English and perhaps they should have been written by a team and not one individual. The report cautioned that the notion of functionality required not only the preparation of teaching materials that were suitable for the everyday experiences of the participants but also required the involvement of local extension workers in every aspect of the project.

Inadequate testing of materials, the use of difficult words and phrases, a curriculum which was mainly agricultural based, the complicated use of language in radio broadcasts and instructor domination of post-broadcast discussions all contributed to a high rate of drop-out amongst adults participating in the Mbere programme.

2.1.7 Mali

Functional Literacy Experience in a Groundnut and Cereal Operation in Mali.

Since independence, the Government of Mali has placed considerable emphasis on promoting agricultural diversification and on increasing agricultural production. In 1972, a national decree declared that development programmes should devote themselves to increasing rural productivity through every possible means.

The creation of the Groundnut and Cereal Crop Station grew out of a need to design a project which would meet the requirements of promoting agricultural diversification, increasing agricultural production and increasing rural productivity. The organization mentioned above was responsible for an integrated development plan that consisted of promoting the production of groundnuts and cereal grains, marketing the agricultural produce, planning and maintaining rural roads, establishing sanitation projects and veterinary projects and the promotion of literacy and training of people in rural areas.

From its inception, the Groundnut and Cereal Crop Station Opêration Arachide et Cultures Vivrières, (OACV), took an interest in all the aspects of the lives of the people living within its zone of intervention. Its major aim was not only that of economic gain but also of the well being of all the participants of the programme. OACV intended to turn interested peasants into truely modern farmers who could not only increase production but also learn to manage it. Functional literacy was regarded as the only educational system that could bring about this overall development.

The literacy programme in OACV had its beginnings as a micro-experiment. It arose out of a precise need: that of enabling farmers to control the marketing of their groundnut production and that of bringing them to trust the groundnut purchasing teams of OACV. As Chinese scales had been imported for use and these were distrusted by the farmers, the literacy programme was geared to the understanding of these scales and towards functional numeracy. The experiment proved successful and was subsequently expanded to other areas in the production zone.

Before the expansion of the programme, needs assessment was conducted to assess the educational needs of farmers in the zone. The study was conducted by a multidisciplinary team consisting of an evaluator, a graphics artist, a materials producer, and a training specialist. The method of research consisted of basically bringing together the functional literacy staff, the staff of OACV and village authorities for working sessions. The researchers were equipped with a chart and a questionnaire to enable them to note the characteristics of the villages chosen for literacy programmes. In each local, the researchers addressed themselves to the village chief and villagers. Questions were first posed to the village chief and then to the villagers.

Needs assessment resulted in special consideration of the following areas for programme development: agriculture, education, health and hygiene. The preliminary study revealed that farmers wished to learn agricultural extension methods in order to increase their production. They also wanted to know some elementary practices in health and hygiene in order to improve the conditions of life in the villages. Aside from this they were concerned about their relations with the administrative authorities in matters relating to taxation, and the drawing up of birth, death and marriage certificates.

The teaching materials and the content of the professional training sessions were conceived and prepared by the National Production Centre in collaboration with technicians from OACV. The literacy texts were edited by a specialized branch of the National Production Centre. Educational problems that were highlighted through the basic study were developed into themes for extension work and professional training. Two sets of materials were developed. Initially, the emphasis was on literacy. Later it changed to an emphasis on the professional education aspect.

Materials which were produced for use in the project employed a semi-global method of teaching reading. These materials, which included photographic illustrations as well as drawings were bound together into booklets entitled, "Tigasine". As production was a major concern, agricultural extension themes recurred frequently in the booklets. Next in order of importance and presentation in the booklets was health education. Only one civic education theme was presented: the payment of taxes.

Special materials were developed for the animators working in the programme. These included a complete set of cards which offered guidance on technical information for use in the socio-economic and professional training sessions, and language and arithmetic cards along with the instructions for developing lessons.

Radio was used in training teachers. The broadcasts, which were prepared by the central staff, provided efficient guidance and offered practical advice on educational themes as well as on the organization of socio-professional sessions. The broadcasts also provided answers to work related questions submitted by teachers and thus created a permanent system of feedback between the National Centre and the literacy centres.

Evaluation preceeded, accompanied and followed all the developmental projects in this programme. Basic evaluation determined the educational needs of the community. During the execution of the programme, formative evaluation improved the efficiency of the system. Training was based on the needs and concerns of the illiterates and of the national bodies of development.

In 1975, an evaluation study was conducted with the support of the World Bank. The main function of evaluation was seen as a system of furnishing guidelines for improving methods of programme execution and for organizing a permanent feedback system within the project rather than formulating final judgements about the results and consequences of functional literacy.

2.1.8 Sudan

Women's Social Welfare Programme, Gezira Scheme, Sudan.

The Women's Social Welfare Programme in the Gezira Agricultural Scheme, Sudan, began in 1975. Although adult education and community development were not new to the Gezira Scheme, little systematic attention had been given to the social and economic education and integration of women within the development project.

The Social Welfare Programmes draw in part from long established concern for education within the Scheme, from Sudanese participation in the Experimental Work Oriented Literacy Programme conducted by Unesco and most recently from planning done in conjunction with the 1975 National Literacy Programme.

The programmes, which stress the improvement of the social and economical position of women within the integrated development project at Gezira, train women in skills related to household and agricultural duties while attempting to reduce the high rate of illiteracy among women. Elements of functional literacy, women's welfare, home economics and rural crafts are integrated into the curriculum which forms the basis of the programmes.

Needs assessment within the target area revealed that the area, which is rural in nature, was one in which social relations and change were slow, especially as related to the position of women. A need was identified for the teaching of home economics and home management, especially in the area of production of food stuffs and money management. Knowledge related to health and existing health practices were high as a result of past health education programmes within the project area. Women were found to be both socially and economically dependent upon their husbands or fathers and, although granted legal rights by law, few took advantage of their rights to participation. It was also seen that lack of access to information on home economics and home management was a major obstacle to the greater social and economic integration of women.

Past programmes for women had been developed without taking into account the opinions of participants from the target area. The results of the above mentioned needs assessment were used in the planning and implementation of the Social Welfare Programmes in 1975.

The present programme has four main elements: 1. functional literacy, in which women can acquire communication skills and which motivates women to continue educational pursuits and effectively use knowledge gained in the programme; 2. women's welfare, in which the programme is geared towards acquiring knowledge, skills and attitudes related to home management and home economics, health, hygiene and social and family obligations; 3. home economics, in which the intention is to provide opportunities for training in new methods or improvement of existing practices; and 4. rural crafts, in which the intent is to train participants in handicrafts and better use of leisure time and preservation of cultural heritage.

Programme content is based on sector text books, which are produced nationally, and teaching materials developed at the local level. The basic text for the programme, "We read and manage" is followed by two texts in the advanced stages of the course as well as by diversified materials in the follow up stage.

The curriculum is based on an educational units approach where topics are integrated for the purpose of acquiring the skills needed for dealing with the immediate environment. In the Social Welfare Programme, the seven units include: the child; the mother; diet; clothing; housing; the village; and the nation. Topics in each unit are divided into general knowledge, skills, attitudes and practical activities.

In implementing the curriculum, teachers are allowed to decide which methodology or combinations thereof are the best for the presentation of a particular topic. Educational materials for the teacher include an educational units reference book, a preparations notebook, audio visual materials, questionnaires for compiling data to be used in follow up work and a technical reference book. Learner materials include an activities notebook and texts in addition to basic classroom materials. Procedures for programme implementation are presented in detail in the educational units reference book for teachers.

Evaluation in the Social Welfare Programmes is seen as a fundamental process contributing to the constant improvemnt and development of the educational programme.

2.1.9 Tanzania

Needs Assessment in Curriculum Development, Tanzania

In Tanzania, the long term development goals are embedded in the underlying policies of building a selfreliant socialist state. It is felt that education - whether formal or non-formal - has a major role to play in "ujamaa", socialist reconstruction . As a result, emphasis has been placed on preparing the entire population, especially adults, for the desired changes.

The work oriented functional literacy project in Tanzania emerged from a request by the Government of Tanzania to UNDP/Unesco for the purpose of establishing a work oriented experimental literacy project closely linked with agricultural vocational training. The request was based upon a concern with the increasing rate of relapse into illiteracy by those who had participated in traditional literacy offerings; by a lack of proper planning and co-ordination of literacy efforts; by the inadequacy of traditional agricultural practices and a lack of adequate equipment and extension personnel; and by a significant rate of illiteracy amongst the adult population.

The Sixth Economic Zone was chosen for a selective and intensive approach. The area, which was comprised for four regions, had been given high priority in the Five Year Plan and was an area in which people had previously demonstrated their eagerness to learn and an area in which the introduction of new skills would enable people to increase productivity and raise their standard of living.

Major goals of the project were to discover and develop practical and effective teaching and learning materials for the implementation of an agriculturally oriented functional literacy project; to evaluate, on a scientific and continuing basis, the results of its own activities; and to provide, through pilot programmes and their activities, realistic data, guidance and orientation for the literacy campaign in Tanzania.

Specific goals included teaching illiterate men and women basic literacy and numeracy as related to agriculture; to help them apply this new knowledge to solve their basic economic, social and cultural problems; to prepare them for more efficient participation in the development of their village, region and country; and to provide necessary and adequate reading materials for follow up work.

Needs assessment for the pilot project was carried out at both the micro and macro levels. Existing knowledge, attitudes, skills and practices on agricultural topics were examined at the local level while extensive use was made of secondary data at the regional and national level. After collection and analysis of data was complete, a list of technical, economic, socio-cultural and cognitive problems was made.

The functional literacy programmes, while introducing all elements of their particular subject matter in accordance with its own internal logic, strove to present material through a problem centred approach with special stress on important bottlenecks to higher productivity in the activities concerned. In each case, participants learned to identify and solve specific common problems that lessened their productivity and hindered their achievement of a better standard of living. Programmes were designed so that participants would see the problem as a situation subject to change rather than condition beyond their control.

Vocational training elements were successfully integrated with literacy in three ways: through integrated teaching materials; through linkage of verbal knowledge of vocational skills by the teacher and immediately after with practical skills on demonstration plots; and through actual work on class demonstrations plots.

Much time and effort were given over the preparation and printing of teaching materials. The integrated writers workshop was the principal method used in the development of materials. The writing team included a methodology expert, a linguist, a book production specialist, a subject matter specialist, a graphics and lay out specialist and a Kiswahili language specialist. Primers were produced for each programme together with related teacher materials. Supplementary materials such as posters were also produced by the integrated writers workshop.

The major advantages to such an approach were felt to be the accuracy and relevance of the materials which relected a consensus of a multidisciplinary team; the speed achieved through a shortened editing time and the validity of the selection of main problems for consideration by representatives of all agencies and departments entering into the collaboration.

The teaching approach used was one in which discussion was a key element. Discussion prior to the lesson provided valuable information to the instructor and served as a basis for the introduction of new material. Discussion also gave confidence to the learners as it made them active participants in the teaching process.

The pilot project ran for a period of two years. After that time, it was expanded into a national undertaking. Wile the necessity for revision of some of the programmes was seen, pressure was greater to produce relevant teaching programmes for the different economical zones of the country.

The results of the pretesting of one of the programmes, Home Economics, is presented in this study. Such pretesting provided valuable information on specific problems in the orientation of the didactic materials and weaknesses in teacher training. It also proved that demonstration guides could easily be used in the preparation of follow-up materials for both second stage literacy activities and independent reading.

2.1.10 Thailand

Functional Literacy Programme in Region 8, Thailand

Adult education in Thailand has reflected the changes in international norms since its inception in 1940. Beginning in 1940 with a formal education programme for adults a switch was made to Unesco's model of fundamental education in 1947, and in 1968, to its work-oriented functional literacy model. The effectiveness of the work-oriented functional literacy approach was apparent to Thai educators. There were, however, problems relating to shortages of resource personnel, textbook orientation of teachers and their inability to handle vocational instruction that characterized the content of work-oriented literacy programmes. Because of those limitations, the Adult Education Division began developing a new model in 1970.

The new model was constructed as a total system, starting with the formulation of a working philosophy, including objectives, and a set of assumptions about adult learners and their existing conditions in the Thai socio-cultural context. Educational planners formulated a philosophy for this programme to ensure that the curriculum, the learning materials, the teacher training strategies and the instructional techniques to be used would be guided by a common set of goals.

The new philosophy developed for the functional literacy programme was based on previous Division programme experiences and a careful consideration of dominant Thai Buddhist values. This philosophy sought to promote greater self reliance in learning amongst adults. A process known as "Khid pen" was promoted to the learners in developing the necessary tools needed to work towards the level of harmony desired in the philosophy. A "Khid pen" person was considered as one who approached a problem and sought potential solutions to it by considering or analyzing data about: his personal situation, including his capabilities, weaknesses, resources and values; his environment, including his community's social, cultural, political and physical conditions; and the best accumulated knowledge available relating to the issue and its potential solutions.

In 1971, the Adult Education Division initiated the experimental functional literacy programme in the northern provinces of Lampang and Phrae, also known as region 8. The main reason for selecting these two provinces was their relatively high rate of illiteracy. Baseline surveys were conducted in order to obtain data on village living conditions. Teams sought out data on economic activities and practices; villagers' knowledge, attitudes and practices in areas of health, sanitation, family planning, agriculture and marketing; and the literacy level of the villagers and their popular lexicon. Teams used two interrelated techniques, interviews and group discussions.

The data was processed and materials for the functional literacy curriculum were developed. The curriculum consisted of 73 concepts divided into four general categories: agriculture, health and family life, economics and civics.

In 1974, a second needs assessment was undertaken in an effort to obtain data for validating or improving units in the existing functional literacy curriculum and for developing a more functional curriculum for continuing education programmes. Survey findings suggested that the content on agricultural techniques included in the curriculum might not be necessary, but on the whole, the survey validated the need for course content in the areas of personal hygiene, family planning, nutrition and sanitation, and the rights and responsibilities of citizenship.

Materials developed for the functional literacy programme were prepared by a working group which consisted of adult educators, Thai language experts, math supervisors and educators skilled in the northern dialects and the living conditions existing there. A textbook was developed to emphasize content relevance. Real life photographs were used to help the learners reflect on problem conditions in their community and thereby motivate them to discuss these themes. A special characteristic of the book was that it was given to the learners page by page, thus allowing them to watch the book grow as they learned.

A special handbook was developed for teachers. It was designed to suggest different ways in which the teachers could conduct classes without relying on the traditional methods of lecturing. The handbook contained lesson cards that were to be distributed to learners.

It also presented the rationale of the lesson, objectives and suggested issues for discussion.

Due to financial resources and manpower, the Divison was unable to maintain a structured formative evaluation programme. Through periodic follow-up meetings with teachers and supervisory personnel, the Division has received adequate feedback about the effectiveness of curriculum content. On the basis of these discussion sessions, revisions have been made in the curriculum each year.

While the Division has sought ways of making the curriculum content more relevant to learner and community needs, these efforts have been hampered by highly centralized curriculum approval mechanisms and concerns with standardization. In the near future, however, about 40 % of the functional literacy curriculum will vary from region to region and will perhaps require approval at the regional level rather than at the national level. Such reforms, while important, will in themselves be insufficient. Ultimately, relevance can only be achieved to a satisfactory degree when teachers and learners are encouraged to adapt the issues posed in each lesson to their particular needs and seek, on their own, the necessary resources, informational and otherwise, that they require to resolve those issues.

2.1.11 CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT FOR FUNCTIONAL LITERACY: NOTES ON A DIALECTICAL MODEL

H.S. Bhola

The dictionary defines curriculum, simply, as a course of study. It follows that the curriculum development is the process of developing a course of study for a specified group of learners.

What functional literacy workers must understand is that curriculum development for functional literacy is not merely a matter of developing a course of study. It is also a matter of developing a course of action. A lack of consideration for one or the other would surely lead to partial solutions and sometimes to counterproductive approaches to development problems.

The socio-political context of curriculum development

The process of curriculum development takes place in a socio-political context. It is a process which is both technical and political at the same time.

The politics of curriculum development appear at various levels. Functional literacy after all involves the distribution of educational goods. It also often involves material inputs in communities. There is an actual distribution of income or potential for a new distribution is created. And that is what politics is all about. At another level, technical considerations in curriculum development may have to be sacrificed because national, regional or local politics demand that a functional literacy programme be introduced on an emergency basis. Decisions to start may be taken before feasibility studies are in. Expansions may be ordered before results from pilot projects have been evaluated. Primers may be printed and distributed before those could be pre-tested. Teachers may be put to work without any training. Decentralization may be ordered even if it means a loss of the integrity of the programme and the dissipation of feedback.

This is not, however, to discount the technology in the process of curriculum development. A sophisticated technology of curriculum development has indeed emerged during the last fifteen or more years. The process of curriculum development has been conceptualized with some elegance; the instructional development process has been well elaborated; we have learnt to build message systems based on a multiplicity of media and material; and procedures for the validation and evaluation of the curriculum development process have been learned.

Developing a course of study

Much like his counterpart in the formal education system, the curriculum developer in functional literacy must deal with some typical questions: What should be taught? To whom? Who should teach it? By what method? In what sequence? In what setting? With what instructional materials? With what expectations? How should the instructional process and results be evaluated?

The various technical questions in the process of curriculum development can be organized under one of the following three analyses:

1. Learner analysis
2. Learning task analysis, and
3. Learning environment analysis.

Functional literacy workers will have to develop curricula for functional literacy based on concurrent analyses of their potential learners, of learning tasks and of the environment of learning.

The task of developing a course of study in functional literacy is rendered specially difficult because of the following challenges:

1. Teaching of "visual literacy" as part of the teaching of functional literacy.
2. Integration of the teaching of literacy with the teaching of functional content.
3. Integration of the teaching of reading with the teaching of writing.
4. Integration of the teaching of reading and writing with the teaching of numeracy.
5. Innovating instructional roles that do not already exist.
6. Developing curriculum not only for learners but also for their teachers.
7. Designing new organizational systems for the delivery and actualization of curriculum.
8. Designing educational plans that lead to independent study after the functional literacy programme - a post-literacy curriculum.

Functional literacy workers have to create their own educational infrastructures. They can seldom depend on commercial textbook publishers for primers and follow-up books. Teacher training colleges do not always train literacy teachers and other personnel needed by functional literacy projects. Universities do not provide enough research support. As a result, curriculum developers in functional literacy have to create "whole systems for instruction" that involve curriculum for both learners and their teachers, and media and materials for both teaching and learning.

Developing a course of action

Functional literacy is development. Development is not merely a matter of individual learning. It is also a matter of structural change. As individuals prepare themselves with new information, new skills and new attitudes, structures of opportunity available to them must also change. The disadvantaged must be empowered to be able to participate in the political process. There must be a new allocation of social statuses. More production must be accompanied with a just distribution of the produce. All this means structural change.

We must not be carried away, of course. Educators qua educators work within the educational domain. They use educational strategies. They make educational interventions. This does not mean that the functional literacy worker as educator should keep in mind his own educational business and forget the rest. On the contrary, we suggest that he must work on both a course of study and a course of action. He must build interfaces between the system of instruction and the system of action.

To present a set of change strategies for the functional literacy worker that would integrate a course of study with a course of action is not possible within the scope of the present exercise. A list of challenges can, however, be presented:

1. Translation of national and/or regional plans into plans for the community or locality.
2. Identification of individual actors, groups and formal institutions that could enter coalitions for action at the community level.
3. Identification of existing structures of leadership, communication and influence that would lead to the development of communication strategies for information sharing and decision making.
4. Creation of an environment of hope and presentation of community models for emulation.
5. Building resources that are needed by functional literacy workers and their collaborators in promoting development; and - are needed by adult learners for incorporating new changes. These resources may be cognitive, of influence and goodwill, material, of personnel, institutional and of time.

A dialectical model of curriculum development

In this age of celebrations of individual assertions, community control and decolonization, both internal and external, the following are some of the most persistent questions: Who has the right to dream our futures? Who has the right to design our destinies? Who will decide what people need and what people will get? Who will be our teachers and our leaders?

These simple-sounding questions are really age-old questions of moral philosophy, social ethics, political theory and behavioural technology. Hidden in these questions are the issues of individual needs versus state purposes, elitism versus populism, participation versus representation, centralization versus decentralization, and efficiency versus effectiveness.

To suggest a way out of this dilemma, we propose a dialectical process model. We suggest that the collective visions of the elite must be re-invented within local settings, participatively, with the communities. Again, these re-invented visions must be implemented in full partnership and participation with the communities. Thus both the means and ends of development through functional literacy must be determined through a dialectical process where local aspirations confront national visions, national plans relate to local purposes and national strategies are adapted to local conception of means.

This would mean that planning is neither centralized nor decentralized, neither deductive or inductive; it is transactional. It is a relationship of exchange, collaborative validation and creative invention. It deals with felt needs as it fashions new needs. The calculus of means and ends is mutually sanctioned.

The dialectical model proposed assumes:

1. Definition of national visions and national agendas by the leadership and the development elite.
2. Development of needs profiles by different constituencies and interest groups at the community level.
3. Participative negotiation of needs by all the different interest groups.

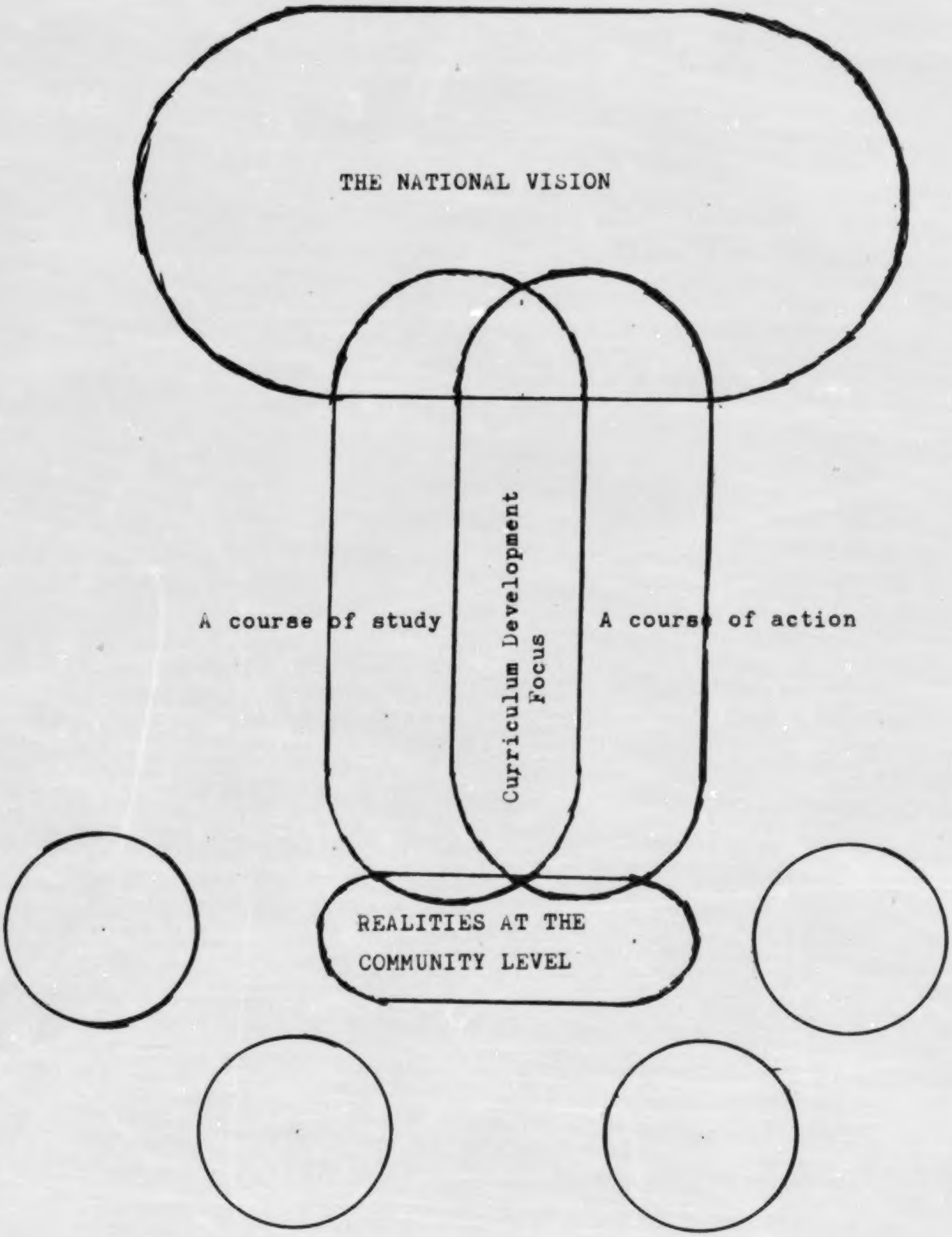
Participation at the heart of the process

Participation, as we can see, is at the heart of the process. The re-invention and validation of national visions and plans in local settings assumes participatory strategies of planning, implementation and evaluation. This is by no means easy to accomplish. Indeed participation can easily become manipulative. Sometimes, it may be consultive. But may be seldom authentic.

The following conditions must be fulfilled for participation to have a chance to be authentic:

1. Normative re-education of the development elite and of the functionaries of functional literacy.
2. Conscientization of the peoples.
3. Learning of skills of participation both by leaders and followers, by teachers and learners.
4. Designing of mediating institutions between the power of the central bureaucracies and the powerless community.

An integrative general model of curriculum development in functional literacy can now be presented graphically as follows:


THE NATIONAL VISION
A course of study
Curriculum Development Focus
A course of action
REALITIES AT THE COMMUNITY LEVEL

Having presented a synthesis of the model of curriculum development in functional literacy, the following cautions may be added:

1. The curriculum development process should be seen as an open-ended process. Nothing should be considered final. All curricular plans and materials should be considered tentative and should be adapted, revised or rejected on the basis of existential experience with their use in real-life settings.
2. While curriculum development should be considered as an experiment, research should not become a self-perpetuating exercise independent of developmental and instructional purposes.
3. The distinction between the "prescriptions of models" and the "restrictions of the real world" must be understood. The purpose of making and using models is to have an ideal to approximate to. Perfection would be seldom possible. Curriculum developers must do the best possible job within the constraints of their institutional and social settings.
4. The curriculum developer must keep an eye on the meta-learning resulting from his teaching. In learning scientific agriculture, farmers may also learn a general scientific attitude. That may, on the one hand, give them a sense of personal efficacy and, on the other hand, make them question their present beliefs. As functional literacy workers we must understand our functional teachings and their dysfunctional consequences. We must also be on the look out for the unanticipated consequences of our actions and we must learn to face those consequences.

2.2 Phase Two: Reports of the Seminar Working Groups

In the second phase of the seminar, working groups considered four of the basic steps in curriculum development as they had emerged from the discussion surrounding the presentation of the case studies in the first phase of the seminar:

- assessing learning needs and formulating learning objectives;
- translating teaching objectives into teaching-learning materials and activities;
- organizing the curriculum development process and implementing curricula; and
- evaluating the process and the products.

The purpose of thise phase was to assure that the curriculum development procedures emerging from the discussion in the first days of the seminar were applicable to the development of curricula for a wide range of situations and settings.

The reports of the working groups are presented in the pages which follow. They appear in their unedited form.

2.2.1 ASSESSING LEARNING NEEDS AND FORMULATING LEARNING OBJECTIVES

Report of Group I[1]

The assessment of learning needs and the formulation of teaching-learning objectives based on such an assessment is perhaps the most crucial part of the process of curriculum development.

1. What is needs assessment?

Before defining needs assessment, a prior question must be raised: what are needs? A commonsense answer to the question would not be hard to supply. But a commonsense answer would not be satisfactory.

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[1] Group members were: H.S. Bhola, India (Chairman)
Renato Barbosa, Brazil
Anita Dighe, India (Rapporteur)
Volkhard Hundsdörfer, Germany
M.C. Imakando, Zambia
Sunthorn Sunanchai, Thailand

The concept of needs is at the same time a complex of organic necessities, individual perceptions and aspirations, and imposed ideological prescriptions. What needs do individuals have? What needs do communities feel that they have? What needs do the development workers think that communities should have? And this does not, by any means, exhaust the list of possible questions.

A first distinction that could be made is that between "needs" and "wants".

Wants are perceived to be more general. For example, the term might include desire for better housing, more clothing and better means of transportation to the market. Needs, on the other hand, imply basic desires or minimum necessities that are required for survival.

Another distinction often made is between "felt needs" and "unfelt needs". Felt needs are seen to be those needs which have already been learned and internalized by individuals and communities. Unfelt needs are those that development workers think communities have but do not feel and thus are imputed to communities. Poverty and deprivation often prevent an articulation of the so-called unfelt needs by those who live on the periphery of the social system. A process will, therefore, have to be activated whereby more and more of those needs are elicited as "felt" needs.

A closer look at the concept of felt needs would reveal that such needs are in reality very few in number. On the other hand, most needs are conditioned by social norms, values, and ideologies that in essence define them. In any needs assessment process, an adequate study of the ideological frame would, therefore, become important.

One could also talk of needs as being general or specific. Are certain needs typical of one particular community, only? Or are some of these needs common to a whole region or to the entire country? These are questions that a curriculum developer has to constantly seek to answer. For example, certain diseases might be prevalent across the entire country while certain other diseases might be typical of a region, a sub-region or even a community. The curriculum developer would have to be sensitive to such differences.

More importantly, a curriculum developer should be aware of the categories he uses in defining needs of regions and sub-regions. A geographically defined coastal region may be seen as fish-eating region but there may be no fish available outside the ten-mile coastal strip. A cotton-growing region may have important communities of maize growers.

It is necessary for the curriculum developer to think not in terms of equally important needs, but in terms of a sequencing of needs. He has to be able to identify the community needs as expressed and imputed and place them in an order of priority. In deciding upon salience of needs, it is necessary, however, to realize that certain needs must be fulfilled before the others. This realistic assessment would help to order needs on another criterion of short-term, medium-term, and long-term needs.

It is important to recognize however, that curriculum development is an ongoing process. A curriculum is not a definitive statement of needs and problems of the adult learners. It is an open-ended process whereby needs are discovered, modified and adapted to reflect local conditions and problems.

2. The process of needs assessment

The process of needs assessment must be a dialectic between the national vision and local aspirations, between the felt need and the unfelt (imputed) need. It will have to be a process of re-invention. The dialectic will have to involve participative strategies of planning and evaluation.

A curriculum developer has to operate within certain political, social and economic constraints. Thus, he might find that within a particular political and economic structure, the goals of the educational process have already been predetermined for him. In such a situation, the dialectical process that is proposed for the needs assessment takes place in less than an ideal setting but need not be useless. On the other hand, it is possible that both the means and the goals of the educational process are open-ended within a social system. This would facilitate a genuine dialectical process between the masses and the elites. In either case, the curriculum developer must be aware of his vantage position and of the parameters within which he or she operates. Limited finances for conducting needs assessment might be another constraint imposed on the curriculum developer by the system.

The needs assessment process is conceived here as a dynamic process whereby an interface is established between the rural population and the political and social elites.

The question "who will represent the masses or the elites?" here assumes particular significance. Will the representatives belong to only certain special interest groups? For a true and open dialogical process to take place those representing either the masses or the elite would in fact have to be their spokesmen. They would have to share the concerns, the hopes and the aspirations of all those who belong to the group.

It is likely that a mutually reacting and reinforcing dialogical process between the masses and the political elites would at the best remain an ideal goal in most third world countries. In reality, a dialectic between the masses and the elite could result in a conflict of interests.

A dialectical process can be either dialogical or manipulative. Participation can be manipulated and can be used sometimes, consciously or unconsciously, for manipulative purposes. In a dialogical process, there can be authentic participation. Authentic participation requires that the outcomes or the conclusions of dialogue between those involved in the participatory process should not be known or decided upon beforehand. It requires mutual acceptance and equality. Participation is both an act of love and courage; it requires mutual respect, faith, and trust. This is often difficult because one is mostly governed by stereotypes and inhibiting social normes. A question can be asked whether a dialectical process will be possible in a mass action adult education programme on the one hand, and in a region-specific functional literacy programme on the other. The confusion rises partly out of a consideration of individual needs as being different from or opposed to collective needs. An important element of a true dialectical process, however, is that the individual needs and collective needs come to terms, one with the other. In other words, such a process ensures the articulation of individual needs for collective interests, yet allowing for the very personal and the ideosyncratic needs to be pursued.

There are two processes involved in needs assessment: First, there are national, regional and subregional needs; and there are the specific community needs. In the dialectical process, the national needs or plans on purposes get re-oriented in the community on local settings. In the second process, the community "felt" needs are dynamically interrelated - one need fulfilling another or creating a new one. For example, a curriculum developer might find that the basic need in a particular area is a lack of adequate food. Maize cultivation may be the first response to that need. That might lead later to nutrition education and possibly to family planning information thereafter. The curriculum developer should be able to identify "generative needs networks" and be able to anticipate how such networks might operate.

The need for using a participatory process for an effective needs assessment places responsibility on the curriculum developer. He would need to develop empathic skills to be able to involve those he works with in a participatory process. He would also need to have a firm belief and interest in developmental work. Unless there is a firm belief in soliditary and egalitarianism, a curriculum developer cannot be involved in a participatory process. Most literacy programmes fail because of half-hearted commitments of workers to the potential outcomes of literacy. For literacy brings about a new distribution of "educational goods" which in turn brings about a new distribution of "economic goods". In case this distribution is not brought about, literacy at least succeeds in developing a potentiality for such re-distribution. A curriculum developer would need to clarify his own values with regard to his role in this process.

3. Who would do the needs assessment?

Needs assessment has generally tended to be the monopoly of the evaluator. The curriculum developer has either avoided the activity or has not realised the importance of involving himself in such work. Experience has shown, however, that unless the curriculum developer is involved in this process, the needs assessment becomes a futile exercise. Needs assessment should be a collaborative effort and should involve the evaluator, the curriculum developer, programme organizers, field supervisors, and other related personnel. In case the project is a small operation, the group might be small. In a larger project, the team might consist of several people of diverse expertise and professional interest.

4. The tools and instruments of needs assessment

Before setting forth on the needs assessment task, a curriculum developer must define the term "community". It is likely that a community consists of a group of villages in some instance. It is equally probable that there are several communities within the same village. It is necessary for the curriculum developer to identify this "community" in order not to confuse the community with factions or with special interest groups.

In India, for instance, you might not easily succeed in gathering the landless and the landlords of the same village for a single meeting intended for a dialectic needs assessment of the whole "group", since in fact their needs would be completely different and infact at cross-purposes.

Generally speaking, it shall not be appropriate for politically closed societies to call those in power together with the underprivileged ones of the same "community" to have them identify their own needs. On the other hand, as a curriculum developer you must not prevent them from confronting one set of needs with another set of needs thereby promoting escapism.

The methods for conducting needs assessment are varied. At the national level this can involve compilations of secondary data from documents, records or studies. At the regional, sub-regional and community levels it can involve organized efforts of specialists in diverse disciplines involving both study and field study.

The tools that are generally used for assessing needs at the community level derive mainly from sociology and anthropology. Survey methods, particularely questionnaires and interview schedules, are commonly used tools for conducting needs assessment. The advantage of the survey method is that it enables the researcher to elicit information from diverse and substantial segments of his target group or groups. On the other hand, what the survey method can achieve in scope, it lacks in depth of information. For this reason, the anthropological method of participant observation is now a preferred method for many evaluators and curriculum develpers. The process of living with the community enables the researcher to understand the community better.

In the participatory process of needs assessment, the curriculum developer encourages the people in the community to identify and to articulate their own problems. He acts as a facilitator in bringing about a dialogue between the people in the community, the political elites, and the technical experts. Change can sometimes be brought about by a central political power by imposition. However, it is now commonly accepted that change can be brought about more readily when people themselves are involved and are willing to change. This latter approach is preferred both for reasons of values and effectiveness.

All this has relevance for the curriculum development process. Communities for whom the curriculum is intended should be consulted, and their participation and involvement in the educational process should be encouraged through a dialectical process. Every culture presumably has its own version of the dialectical process to achieve community consensus. Paulo Freire has talked of conscientization through dialogic action. Social scientists talk of organization development. It should be possible to rediscover some method in every specific local context and to use it for educational purposes. Gandhi's work in India during the Independence movement tells us that this can be done.

In curriculum development, an in-depth anthropological study of one or two villages is necessary so that the 'world-view' of the community can be understood. Curriculum has a cultural context and is intended for people whose lives are conditioned by certain social and cultural norms. Such anthropological studies would also help to highlight certain traditional and indigenous methods that could be used to great advantage in the curriculum development process.

5. Formulating teaching-learning objectives

After needs assessment, the next step is the formulation of learning objectives. As mentioned earlier, needs can be varied. However, it is necessary to make a distinction between "needs" and "learner needs". Learner needs are only a part of the total developmental needs of the community. They are the needs for which educational inputs are necessary. They may require specific cognitive, attitudinal and vocational skills. Thus "learner needs" get converted to "learning needs".

In the formal education system the teaching objectives are often stated in specific terms. In adult education, specific teaching objectives would overwhelm the teaching process and affect both the teacher and the teaching-learning situation. Consequently, it will be better that in formulating objectives for the functional literacy curriculum, only the learning objectives are established. This would emphasize the importance of the learning process in adult education programmes. Also, these objectives should not be stated in terms that are too specific. In trying to have behavioural objectives, we may end up having rather trivial objectives.

Another important dimension in formulating learning objectives would be that the stated objectives can accomodate the dialectical process that was adopted for needs assessment.

Three problems are encountered in converting learning needs into learning objectives. They should be taken into consideration in formulating learning objectives.

5.1) One relates to the issue of "theory" vs. "practice". Should the main thrust be on "facts" or should the emphasis be on the "concepts" behind the facts. This issue is particularly relevant because knowledge transfer is possible only when basic concepts are understood.

5.2) A second problem relates to different types of learning. Thus learning takes place in the cognitive, attitudinal and psychomotor domains. What are the objectives for each process? Can they be separated or are they interrelated in a particular learning setting?

5.3) A third problem relates to hierarchies of knowledge within each learning task. For instance, what are the hierarchical levels in the attitudinal domain? Or in the vocational domain? What must be taught first before something else can be presented?

6. The ultimate curricular goal - education

Functional literacy is education. Development is education, too. Whatever the specific list of needs and whatever the body of learning objectives, the soul of the curriculum development process has to be education. Irrespective of the project goals and activities, those served by a functional literacy project must experience individual growth, learn problem-solving skills, develop a sense of personal efficacy and learn to count themselves as part of the one and indivisible brotherhood of man.

2.2.2 TRANSLATING TEACHING OBJECTIVES INTO TEACHING-LEARNING MATERIALS AND ACTIVITIES

Report of Group II[1)]

1. Introduction - General Principles

The translation of the needs of adults into teaching objectives and learning materials and activities is a difficult process. In the process of curriculum development an account must be taken of national goals, and these must be reinterpreted at the regional and then at the local and individual level in light of perceived needs, problems and aspirations. Development goals are usually expressed at the national level in general terms, and their translation into educational objectives, and then into locally appropriate activities and materials, must take account of particular cultural, linguistic and socio-economic realities.

Whatever the particular thrust of a national adult education programme, be it concerned specifically with increasing agricultural production and diversifying that production, with creating a better understanding and delivery of health services, or with improving technology appropriate for developing areas and opening new avenues for employment, the great majority of national development programmes in the 1970's place importance on the involvement and participation of the population in development activities. This latter

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Ash Hartwell, UNDP/Unesco, Uganda (Rapporteur)
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goal has important implications for the curriculum development process.

The national goal of increasing the participation of the population in development activities suggests that they should acquire skills needed for the implementation of education programmes: including the skills required for curriculum development. Typically when changes in curriculum are contemplated, the central authorities appoint a group of experts at the national level (and sometimes receive expertise from international assistance). This group then is supposed to create new ideas and concepts, subject this framework to selected educators and field workers, and then tell the "teachers" how they should teach the new material. We see this model over and again; more or less rigidly conceived plans are advanced and expected to be accepted and put into practice by teachers. A number of shortcomings result: typically a lack of relevance to the local realities at the community level, a lack of commitment by teachers to the content of what they are teaching, and often a high dropout rate by the adults who see little connection between the content of the course and their own pressing needs. Further, reliance on centrally produced materials creates major problems of distribution, of altering materials found to be inappropriate, and it creates dependence for both teachers and adult learners on such materials for continued learning.[1]

The approach to curriculum development suggested in this report is that it is a continuing process which should involve the active participation of learners, teachers and curriculum specialists. The role of the national level curriculum specialist is not central to the development of learning materials for adult basic education programmes, but it is crucial for transferring skills of materials development to teachers and learners. In practical terms this requires a process of training, cooperation and coordination at the national, regional and local levels. This approach is based on the principle that the content of education must emerge from the adult's experience and aspirations, rather than from external perceptions of his needs, however well researched, and that this content will grow and change with the growth of the individuals' knowledge, skills and aspiration.

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[1] This is a slight modification of a passage in H. Hawes. "Locally based education research and curriculum development..." IIEP occasional papers No. 40, 1976, p. 21.

This principle requires that curriculum developers must organize channels of communication to local communities to insure that the translation of national goals into local and regional instructional materials is facilitated, and questions concerning the interpretation of national goals and the priority of national development issues are negotiated.

It should also be emphasized that there must be a continual evaluation and transformation of the teaching/learning materials and methods. At the national level, a very important criteria for evaluating the effectiveness of an adult education programme will be the degree and quality of a learner participation in the production of materials for local and regional levels. When a programme fails to effectively involve adults and to meet their aspirations, there is inevitably a heavy drop-out, and a continued dependence by teachers on guidance and materials produced centrally.

One of the principal characteristics of an effective education programme is the gradual improvement of procedures for training teachers and organizers, for facilitating the production of materials at local and regional levels, for continually reviewing problems of communication between learners and teachers, teachers and regional organizers, and between the regions and national planners. Rather than thinking that a national centre can solve all these issues through pre-planning, through detailed and systematic specification of organizational functions, roles, and the design of all education content and materials, it is more realistic and useful to proceed one step at a time, with the objective of increasing the population's skills and participation clearly in mind. This strategy will presume a continual refinement and growth of the national programme, with the adults, the teachers, the regional and national staff all participating in a learning process: for indeed there are no "experts" who can answer all the questions and problems relating tc community and national development.

2. The Process of Translating Objectives into Materials

The central problem of the curriculum process is the translation of the adult learner's needs and the problems of his community into teaching and learning materials and activities. The key to this process is the interaction between the animateur and the learner. We avoid the use of the term "teacher" since it too often connotes one who "knows" as contrasted to one who is ignorant. In adult education the relationship between the learner and the educator must be based on mutual respect, and the acceptance that *all* are learners with different understandings and skills - the illiterate farmer knows skills of survival, the educator is literate. As a result of this interaction the learners' perceptions of the community problems are interpreted in light of national development goals, resulting in the production of teaching materials and learning activities.

3. The First steps of Translation

Step 1: The population defines its needs and its problems in light of a general statement of the national development goals.

Example:

In Mali, peasants were required to sell their groundnuts to an organization responsible for economic development (OVAC). Through discussion with the peasants it was discovered that they were weary of selling their harvests to the enterprise agents, because they did not understand the complicated system of weighing that employed a scale with many different weights.

Step 2: The animateur reformulates the problem in his own words such that it is identified by the people as their own expression, but it should gain a higher level of clarity and generalization. At this point a written word can be introduced.

Example:

The problem is restated to show that peasants are not participating in the marketing operations, and the need to understand the weighing and pricing procedures. The animateur could also introduce the written word "scale" at this point.

Step 3: The animateur introduces his conception of the needs, interests and goals of the community in a written or pictorial form.

Example:

In the Malian case a drawing of the scale is produced on a poster or on the blackboard and the numbers on the scale are indicated on the design. Community action to raise the issue with the enterprise agent would be further discussed.

Step 4: Animateur and learners discuss and conclude what issues would form the basis for the class activities.

Example:

The group decides that they would concentrate on learning how to read and write the numbers on the scale, and that a simple leaflet be prepared for those who are not able to attend the class. This would then be used by the animateur as the basis for preparing a simple primer. This process combines the learning materials development with an issue of central importance to the peasants' life and national development, and ensures that the literacy learning is a motivating and liberating force.

4. The Elaboration of Teaching Material

If one sees the need to adopt adult literacy to local conditions and to bring the translation process down to the community level, three types of teaching materials emerge as essential:

i) Learner made materials. The learners themselves produce reading materials which seem relevant to them.

Examples:

Learners writing down their own history (which has traditionally been expressed orally); printing or producing simple posters on paper such as empry cement bags with charcoal; or drawing a map of their village with labels. At a later stage they may name and describe the hopes of the different groups in the village: the elders, the women, the youth, etc., and this could be produced as a simple story.

ii) Animateur produced materials. The animateur prepares posters or leaflets, or simply writes words and sentences on a blackboard or wall according to the commonly concluded topics. These materials would be composed of the key words, designs or figures designated as relevant by the class. These, together with the learner produced materials could form the basis of a local primer. Examples could be "Sterilizing Water" or "Traditional Stories".

iii) Centrally produced materials. The animateur will introduce centrally produced materials of economic and social relevance, but of a general nature. These will be designed based on general development goals for the country or region, and will typically reflect problems of agricultural production, use of fertilizers, information of community health, etc. As the programme develops, these materials will begin to include materials and ideas/problems generated locally. (This is discussed in more detal in § 8).

5. The Centralization of Decentralized Curriculum Development

The teaching materials of all kinds produced by animateurs and learners which have proven to be useful in one village or area should then be duplicated and distributed by the central organizers to other areas. In this process they may be modified and ameliorated. These materials may also be combined with additional material produced by the national centre to form a newspaper.

Example:

A local repairman - a "fundi" - has developed the know-how to repair a motorpump without the need for "standard tools". This could be written up, inserting a warning about improper handling of sensitive parts, and sold to other villages or fundis. Or a village literacy group has written down a highly efficient treatment of children's diarrhea based on the use of traditional folk medicine. This could be presented as a simple illustrated booklet or poster for wider distribution.

6. The Teaching Process

If the teaching process is to reflect the felt needs and the objective goals of development, it must be highly flexible to adapt, through a process of feedback from the learners, to their changing skills, needs and knowledge. Thus the teaching-learning act becomes part of the process of translating objectives into materials and further activities. Any failure of a technique, any shift of interest, any new stage of consciousness must produce new materials and activities. To achieve this, the experiences reflected in the case studies suggest several characteristics of the teaching process, of which we present three essentials: teaching within the real context; discussion in the learning process; and learning by teaching.

i) **Teaching within the real context**: It is obvious that one should not use symbolic figures, either drawn on the blackboard or presented on a paper card, when the real thing is within reach. To draw a tree on the board and then write the word for this subject under it requires two symbolic interpretations for the illiterate. It is far better to step outside(if one is in the classroom) and label a real tree. Adults rightly demand that literacy be related to relevant aspects of their lives. And the discovery of this relationship must be at the heart of the teaching process.

A slightly different example would be a primer that contained instructions on the use of fertilizer. The group might go to a field and establish an experiment as to whether the fertilizer is economically rational in their particular situation.

ii) **Discussion in the larning process**: A basic principle of learning is that knowledge only emerges through the reinvention of concepts in light of the individuals' own experience. From a didactic point of view discussion is essential to help a learner rephrase a concept in his own words, and thereby to identify with the concept as his own. But discussion is also a powerful tool to develop a "curriculum" adapted to the learners' needs and interests. The choice of words to be analyzed, of the subjects and activities for the class, of the production of materials, the choice of animateurs from new literates, suggestions for community action, and the process of self-evaluation - all these topics can be fruitfully discussed and decided upon by the adult members of a literacy class. Experience from the case studies shows that drop-out problems can be avoided if the learners determine the subject and the mode of presentation through the process of discussion. And, of course, the process itself develops the crucial skills of participation in development.

iii) **Learning by teaching**: Many teachers have observed that learners who have a teaching task advance more quickly.

The reason for this is that they have a powerful motivation to acquire and retain the knowledge which they will transmit. From this point of view the active participation in a discussion is also a way of teaching others. This process can be strengthened by the animateur asking the stronger students to lead discussions (though it is important here to know local customs concerning who can and who cannot play a leadership role - this custom could only be changed in the class on the basis of a class decision), or to have stronger students help those who have not caught on.

If the group is producing a poster, or a set of leaflets that will be used in the village, this process is also a form of teaching. The seriousness of the project forces the learners to concentrate on producing neat and correct lettering, and a more careful presentation of the subject; in contrast to the effort they would make for a class exercise alone.

7. Organizational Issues

For a community education programme to succeed in effectively involving adults, an organization must be developed to transfer the skills and resources for carrying out needs analysis, translating general objectives into materials and activities, and conducting evaluation. These skills and resources must be transferred from the national centre to the regional level, to the animateurs, and finally to the learners.

8. The Production of Learning Materials at National Level

While the national centre will not be required to produce all the instructional materials for the learners, it will have the more difficult task of preparing the training and materials for regional level staff and animateurs. It is often the case that a national centre expends considerable resources and time in attempting to carry out detailed surveys of development and learning needs in various communities, and then generalizes its findings into instructional objectives and materials for a much larger population. Inevitably the objectives and materials designated at a national level will have to be general enough to encompass either the entire country, or at least major regions of the country. It is then the task of the regional and local educators to relate the concrete situations of the adult learners to these objectives and materials. To facilitate this process, those materials produced for the learner at the national level should have the following characteristics:

i) While reflecting general development goals, they should not make specific and detailed recommendations for the learners to follow. Rather they should contain alternative procedures to be discussed and determined at a local level (within a more general level recommendation).

ii) Materials that are deliberately incomplete can be produced. For example in Mali pictures were provided without words under them. Primers can be left with gaps for the learners to complete (this being a simple variation on programmed instruction). Generalized games can be produced, and the learners will have to elaborate the rules to reflect their own situation (as reported in the monograph on games and simulations for adult education).

iii) Prototype material that can be produced at the village level. Here the materials, format and production process is kept deliberately simple. The learning cards produced in the womens' education project in Sudan is a good example of this approach.

iv) In addition to these materials there is, of course, a need for follow-up materials. To the extent possible these should be based on general themes, include materials produced by learners, (and clearly acknowledged as such), and should be colourful and relatively inexpensive, so that they can be purchased by the villages. Burmese literacy material is an excellent example of this kind of material.

9. The Production of training materials at National Level

The major task of the national centre in an adult education programme is the definition of objectives and the preparation of training materials for regional and local level staff. To the extent possible, this particular task of curriculum development should also involve the learners: in this case the animateurs. The general objectives for training will include:

- the comprehension (by the animateurs) of the goals, the principles and the strategy of the education programme;
- the procedures for organizing classes and generating instructional materials locally - including technical aspects of this process;
- how to handle group processes and participative learning;
- identifying and negotiating local goals for learning and action;
- identifying and using local resources - including local skilled persons and local materials and equipment;
- carrying out evaluation and reporting; and comprehension of basic facts and issues of specific development priorities (agriculture, commerce, health, village life, etc.).

The experience of a number of countries suggests that the most difficult training objective is to create the appropriate attitudes and group process skills in the teacher. The crucial point here is that the teacher must become an animateur, so that the relationship between the learner and the "teacher" is one of mutual respect and openness. The adult illiterate is a responsible, experienced person who knows more about the village than the animateur. The animateur is also a learner insofar as he is relatively ignorant about the real needs of the community, and must continually sharpen both his analytical skills and his sensitivity to the needs and aspirations of the community adults.

The importance of this component in the training materials is illustrated by the Training Handbook developed for the adult education programme in Thailand, where a large percentage of time in the course is concentrated on increasing understanding and empathy of the future animateurs.

One of the most successful techniques for training of regional level staff and animateurs has been the operational seminar: its success resides in the adherence to a number of principles that have been cited above in connection with adult classes. In particular animateurs and regional staff should be taught in the same way that they will be expected to conduct village level classes:

i) Where possible, the environment should be used to illustrate how to translate objectives into materials. Since the objective for the animateurs is to involve adults in critical discussion, they must practice this, either in a simulated situation, or, as in the operational seminar, in the field. They should also practice making up posters, simple leaflets and visual aids, using locally available materials.

ii) In helping the animateur have a closer sense of identification and empathy with the peasant or the worker, case studies and role playing is effective. But to illustrate the importance of creating materials and activities from the concrete situation, the animateurs themselves should produce some case studies (either during the operational seminar, or during the in-service phase of their training).

iii) Learning by teaching: the participants in the training course should be given frequent opportunities to lead discussions based on the objectives of the training course, and thereby to practice the participative procedures they will apply in the village.

The procedures will necessarily have to be incorporated in a continual process of growth and training of the animateur. This will be the responsibility of regional staff. During the first phase of a national programme, it will perhaps be necessary to train both regional level staff and animateurs together, and at later stages the regional staff will take over the responsibility of organizing continued training and evaluation with the animateurs in their region.

Just as there will be a continual development of curricular materials from the local, regional and national levels for the adult learners, the training materials will also regularly be developed and improved, reflecting the growing knowledge and skills of all participants in the programme.

10. The Distribution of Materials

In addition to the transfer of expertise in curriculum development from the national centre to regional and local levels, there needs to be a decentralization of the materials and equipment necessary to produce curriculum materials. This suggests that rather than a national investment in a sophisticated printing establishment for the adult education project, a more effective investment would be the purchase of duplicating equipment and supplies for regional and sub-regional levels. Such equipment would have to be sturdy, serviceable, and hand operated paper, ink and duplicating masters would have to be supplied in sufficient quantities to satisfy the requirements of the classes in the area. The management of this operation would be one area in which new literates could play an important part. Other materials that could be supplied regularly from the centre would be poster material and exercise books: in short any materials that would permit and encourage the development of local and regional instructional materials. One indication of the success of the education programme would be if the learners and communities were able and willing to finance and manage the expansion of local materials development.

2.2.3 ORGANIZING THE CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT PROCESS AND IMPLEMENTING MATERIAL

Report of Group III[1]

1. Understanding of the Assigned Topic

The group was asked to deal with a two-part assignment. The first part dealt with the organization of the curriculum development process. As this required consideration of needs assessment, establishment of educational objectives, production of teaching-learning materials and evaluation, it covered much the same territory as that being assigned to other groups. It was the feeling of the members that they should take an overview of the entire curriculum development process and leave to the other groups the detailed analysis of each of these operations. The second part of the group's assignment was to study the implementation of curricula. Here, the group decided to focus its attention on certain issues it felt to be critical to successful implementation of curriculum: Language, organizational power, instructors and supervisors and pre- and post-literacy.

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Tom Mulusa, Kenya
John W. Ryan, IIALM/Iran (Rapporteur)
U Thaung Tut, Burma

2. The Process of Curriculum Development

The group accepted the definition of curriculum as "the course of study" and accompanying course of action. Curriculum development is, therefore, the creation of a course of study, and organizing the curriculum development process is the systematic consideration of and provision for all the steps which intervene between the idea and the reality of the curriculum. These include the conception of the educational undertaking, its design, organization, implementation and evaluation.

Literacy programmes are instances of planned social change. The need for literacy programmes arises when a disparity is perceived between things as they are and things as they should be. In Burma, a Socialist Gouvernment emerged in 1962. Mass illiteracy was not compatible with national aspirations of the new Government: "socialism can not be built by an illiterate people". The imperatives which resulted in the establishment of literacy programmes in other nations are vividly described in the case materials. In all cases, the heritage of mass illiteracy is concerned incompatible with the destiny the nation seeks for itself.

One of the initial tasks is to reconcile a national or elite vision with the realities and aspirations of those whom it is intended to make literate. This was recognized as a complex task which can not be reduced to a set of standard procedures. It is essential that the national vision be persuasive and that it offers to all the possibility of a full affiliation in the new society which is to be built. Literacy conceived as a set of technical skills will usually not interest adults unless the development process is already well under way and the illiterates experience a tension between their improved social and economic status and their continuing under-education. Thus, literacy programmes are strongly influenced by national psychology. Literacy flourishes in atmospheres of hope where tomorrow holds the promise of being better than today. The group recalled Prof. Bhola's idea that the national vision must be re-invented or interpreted to fit local realities. This calls for a flexible and adaptive approach based upon a dialectic between limiting realities and liberating hopes.

Certain of the important steps in communicating or sharing the national vision will be dealt with under programme implementation.

3. A Model of the Curriculum Development Process

The discussion of the curriculum development process was wide ranging and occupied a substantial part of the morning of both the first and second day. The group, having freshly criticized the sterility of model making, immediately succombed to the irresistible temptation of chart paper and multicoloured markers: mere reason proving impotent before the tyranny of technology. The result of this effort is presented on the following page. In this model, the literacy programme comes into being as a result of certain concepts or ideas in respect to a given target group. In a mass programme, the motivating idea may be creating a literate nation as rapidly as possible. In a selective functional literacy programme, the aim may be to improve the technical and literacy skills of, for example, cotton growers between 18 and 40 years of age. The programme objectives are a general statement of what is to be done for whom. The programme objectives suggest or define the subject-areas or problems from which the course content is to be derived. The programme objectives also influence or determine the approach or method to be employed in the educational programme. The content and the method interact with the factors listed in the teaching/learning process. These include: (a) the characteristics of the learner, (b) the language or languages in which literacy is to be achieved, (c) the physical, social, economic, cultural and political factors prevailing in the environment and (d) the human and material resources available. More narrowly defined (the third level in the schematic representation), the teaching-learning process depends upon the influence on the learner of teaching personnel, teaching materials, organizational factors and other resources. Learning experiences and other outcomes are the consequences of the teaching-learning process.

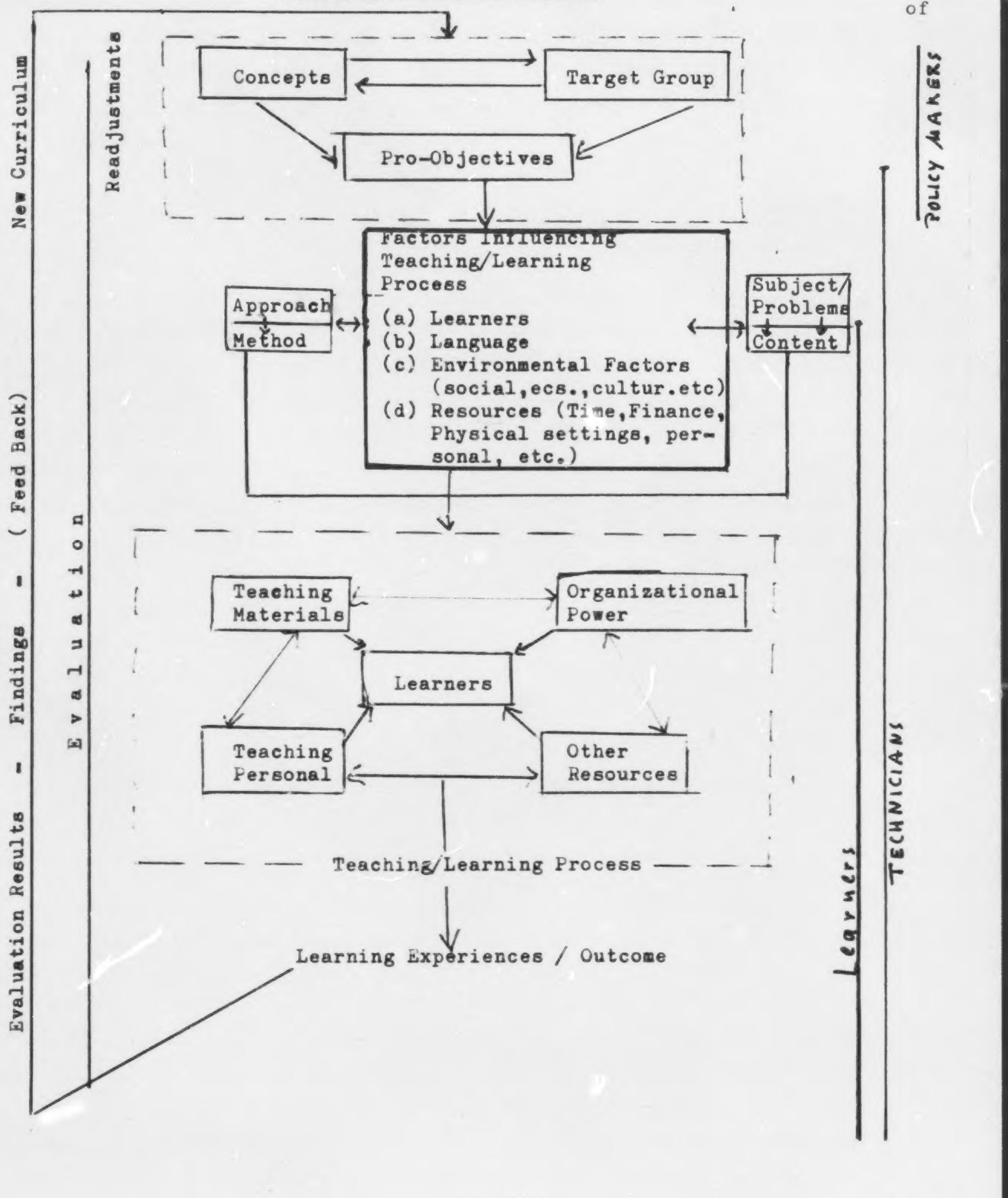
The process of evaluation is seen as being continuous. It directly relates the programme outcomes to the original concept and notions regarding the target group. Evaluation should also occur at all other points in the process and at all points of articulation as, for example, when programme objectives are derived or content and method decided upon. Evaluation should be oriented not only towards discovering problems but also towards identifying new possibilities and lines of attack. As evaluation is being considered by another working group, the members treated it only briefly. The danger that evaluation might be over-done as well as under-done was noted. Evaluation calls not only for a set of formal procedures, but more importantly for an inquiring mind which seeks to understand an action, an action context and the direct and indirect consequences of action.

Three sets of actors are seen to participate in the curriculum development process: policy-makers, technicians and learners. The decision to have a programme was seen as usually originating with policy-makers. Specialists or technicians assist in converting a "raw" concept into a set of programme objectives and a corresponding programme design. All subsequent steps in the curriculum development process will usually, if not always, involve specialists. Although members considered learner participation essential in curriculum development, it was felt that in practice, the learners were usually involved, or should be involved, at the point where selection of programme content and approach takes place and should remain involved in all subsequent steps in the design and implementation process. Learners may, of course, be consulted in their political role of electors at an earlier point in the process when asked to choose between different leaderships and different visions of the tomorrow politicians promise. (See chart on page 80)

4. Curriculum Development in Utopia and on Earth

The group envisaged that curriculum development would be done by an inter-disciplinary team. Such a team would usually include linguistics and educators. It would also probably include other subject area specialists such as anthropologists, psychologists, sociologists. The group considered it important that instructors (teachers) also be represented in such groups. The reasons for this are two: first, instructors are informed of the actual conditions in which the teaching learning process takes place; secondly, it is important that teachers accept the programme which is developed and see it as something in the preparation of which they were represented. Local leaders and potential programme participants should also be

# CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT DESIGN
for
BASIC EDUCATION PROGRAMMES


Participati
of
POLICY MAKERS
Concepts
Target Group
Pro-Objectives
Readjustments
New Curriculum
Factors Influencing Teaching/Learning Process
(a) Learners
(b) Language
(c) Environmental Factors (social,ecs.,cultur.etc)
(d) Resources (Time,Finance, Physical settings, personal, etc.)
Approach
Method
Subject/ Problems
Content
Teaching Materials
Organizational Power
Learners
Teaching Personal
Other Resources
Teaching/Learning Process
Learning Experiences / Outcome
Evaluation Results - Findings - (Feed Back)
Evaluation
Learners
TECHNICIANS

systematically involved in curriculum development. Finally, it is good diplomacy and good sense to involve representatives of departments or agencies who will be asked to support the programme. Better support and cooperation is likely if such agencies are involved in the planning and "flight testing" rather than only at the point of official "take off" or inadvertent "crash landings".

The difficulty of so large a group cooperating closely on so intimate and intensive a task as curriculum development was recognized. It was considered that there would probably be a small "inner circle" of three to five individuals who would work together on a daily basis and a larger "outer circle" which would be kept in close touch with developments and would offer specialized assistance as required. It could be expected that members might shift from the inner circle to the outer or vice versa as the development of the curriculum progressed. The sociologist, for example, might replace the psychologist at the juncture where materials development and small-group testing gives way to piloting materials in communities.

The group noted that neatly planned and executed curriculum development enterprises appear rare in non-formal education. The case materials and reports indicate very strikingly how political requirements and other circumstances have overtaken orderly plans. Thus, curriculum developers should consider both what is the optimal situation and what are the essential minimum conditions for curriculum development. Without wishing to under-estimate the importance of curriculum-development, it was also noted that technically inferior programmes have sometimes worked to remarkable effects whereas technically superior programmes have proven "non-starters".

In addition to seeing their task as a technical undertaking, curriculum developers should also think of themselves as "cultural brokers". They must assure that the programme they are developing is in harmony with the national vision as well as in keeping with local realities.

The group considered that an antidote to the usual description of curriculum development which suggests that the process is taking place in some utopia where wishes are realities, that it would be well to discribe, on the basis of the case materials, the constraints and limitations under which actual curriculum development is usually done and to suggest, in so far as possible, a strategy for dealing with the world as the mess we know it to be. The descriptions of curriculum development one encounters in texts on formal education are rather like a guide to gymnastics in a world without gravity: appealing but impossible in the real world.

5. Critical Issue in Implementing Curricula

Language: The group noted that in all of the case studies language in one form or another posed an issue and that in several of the studies language was the most intractable issue of all. There is no standard answer to the language problem. The nature of the learners, the structure of the language or languages concerned, the goals and methodology of the programme and the past history and future vision of the community or nation concerned all have a direct and immediate bearing on language issues. Language choice and language sequencing present complex technical problems, but language issues also involve matters of cultural identity and national destiny which are political and social concerns of transcendent importance.

The group noted that a specialized monograph has been prepared on linguistics within the series "Literacy in Development". It was nonetheless felt that the curriculum monograph should give a careful attention to the implication of language issues to curriculum development. A summary of the range and variety of language issues encountered in the case studies and the manner of handling them might be presented.

Organizational power: Organizational power is the ability to motivate people, mobilize resources and stimulate and guide action. It is political will harnessed to a national purpose. It requires both an institutional structure and an idea or ideology. The strength of the institutional structure needed is inversely related to the mobilizing power of the idea or ideology. As was noted earlier in this report, successful action requires an inspiring vision of a better tomorrow and reasonable probability of its achievement through individual, community or national action or some combination of the three. Cultural values and political-economic systems are influential in determining the emphasis to be placed on individual as opposed to collective action. The group observed that programmes in which literacy is the primary goal rather than a means to individual mobility or collective promotion are rarely successful in motivating people or political systems to act. The diffusion of literacy occurs rapidly where a development ethos is present and/or where literacy is essential to full participation in economic, social and cultural life of a community.

The implication of the observations for curriculum development is to emphasize, once again, the need to see the curriculum development process as political and cultural in character rather than as merely technical. It is necessary to prepare a curriculum which is intrinsically motivation. It is necessary, also, to recognize that motivation derives primarily from extrinsic rather than intrinsic factors. Curriculum developers will usually not have the power to create the conditions which generate extrinsic motivation, but they should carefully consider how to build upon those which do exist. A need which exists in all societies is the need for individual recognition. How is provision made for harnessing this universal quest to the wagon of literacy? Drama, in one form or another, provokes interest in all societies. The arrival of a student volunteer teacher in a Burmese village, accompanied by the academic staff of the university who serve as supervisors, stirs the interest of the community and prompts a willingness to participate in the adventure of the literacy class. The village leaders' departure to a supervisors training course produces a similar effect. It is part of human expectation that important events will be preceeded by signs, if not in the sky, at least in the village. The arriving student and departing elder are the harbingers of change in the Burmese village. They create a mood of expectation. As most peasant cultures are pessimistic - with good reason - the new hope is fragile and will desintegrate if not fostered and preserved by prompt, systematic and effective follow-up action.

A group member explained the dialectic represented by the intriguing term "centralized de-centralization". This term implies the application and interpretation of a national vision in locally meaningful terms. The purpose of "centralized de-centralization" is not to direct action at the local level but to inspire it.

As the sunlight causes a tree to blossom, so the light of the national vision should cause the literacy programme to come into bloom, deriving its principal sustenance not from the "light" but from the "earth" in which it is rooted.

The group recommends that the monograph gives explicit attention to ideas as a motivating and organizing force in literacy promotion. Suggestions as to how the national-local dialectic can be converted from conflictual to mutually supportive should be offered in the monograph.

Instructors and supervisors: The course of study worked out by the curriculum developer is implemented - and sometimes subverted - by the instructor who guides the teaching-learning process in the classroom or learning circle. The advantages and disadvantages of using primary school teachers or non-teachers for adult classes is often and heatedly debated. In reality, there is often little choice. One is required to use the personnel available and they will often be primary school teachers. Where class content is concerned primarily with the 3 R's, this may be an advantageous choice. If on the other hand, the curriculum is discussion based, the primary school teacher may be unable to overcome his "professional deformations". Similarly, if the curriculum requires presentation of technical content and demonstration of specialized techniques, the primary school teacher may be less suitable than a literate craftsman as an instructor. The case studies demonstrate the possibility of making successful use of teachers from a variety of occupations and situations including primary school teachers, volunteers and members of the communities being served by the programme. The choice of one category of teachers or another, has implications for numerous other aspects of curriculum development and programme implementation. In particular, the training requirements for different categories of teachers will vary, training programmes of different natures, intensities and duration being necessary for each group.

The group referred to the interesting examples and explanations of instructor training programmes contained in several of the case studies. It was felt that a teacher training strategy should be included as one element in the curriculum development monograph. It should be dealt with not a general fashion, as this is a subject for another monograph, but in direct relationship to the development of curricula.

Selection and training of instructors was seen as having a direct relationship to the "organizational power" of the programme authorities. If this power is strong, various categories of teachers may be used for differing periods of time. If organizational power is weaker, it may be necessary to limit the choice of teacher and the conditions of service to assure adequate supervision and continuity of action.

An issue considered important by members was the role of the instructor in respect to both the community he serves and to his hierarchical superiors within the organization running the literacy programme. It was felt that current practice is for the teacher to receive his rewards from above rather than from the clients. It was felt that the mechanism were required to reverse this situation. An experiment in Tanzania was cited as evidence that the community can provide more effective supervision of teachers than can a distant administration. This is not, strictly speaking, an issue of curriculum development but has important implications for successful implementation of curricula.

The role of the supervisor was discussed at some length. Members noted that the supervisor's role was often critical of the successful implementation of programmes. It was also noted that the role was usually multi-faced and ill-defined. Moreover, the aspects of the job which could be easily defined were those which were least important to the success of the programme. The aspects of the job which could not be defined included such functions as "trouble shooter", "cultural broker", "diplomat", "facilitator", etc. It was these roles and a commitment to do whatever was required to assure the success of the programme which were the crucial aspects of the job. The group noted that in many countries the supervisor was relatively untrained, underpaid and "saddled" with a job which required him to undertake extensive travel under difficult conditions. There was debate as to whether the role of supervisor inherited from the formal school system would not have to be "re-invented" or re-defined for the non-formal system. It was felt that more attention should be given to the supervisory function of the community and to the aspects of the supervisor's job which have to do with facilitating rather than inspecting the work of instructors. It was suggested that one of the best means of motivating instructors and supervisors may be that of making explicit provision for their continuing general and professional education. Converting a job into a profession is one of the most effective means of motivating individuals to accept druggery as duty.

Pre- and post-literacy: It is an accepted dogma that literacy is but one phase in a process of education which begins with pre-literacy and continues, after literacy has been achieved, with post-literacy activities intended to sustain and develop reading skills and to whet the appetite for further education of an appropriate type. The group felt that explicit attention should be given to both pre- and post-literacy in the development of curriculum. At both stages, a supply of appealing easy-to-read materials is required. To the pre-literate, the example of reading and the availability of reading material is motivating. To the post-literate, the materials are a means of continuing his education and demonstrating a new skill before his peers. The use of radio and other media to broaden interests beyond the context of the village would be an appropriate step in both pre- and post-literacy phases. Organization of follow-up groups or reading circles is also important. The organizational power used to make people literate should be used, as well, to keep them literate. The new literate needs the encouragement of his peers and the support of his community. It must, also, be recognized that many of the conditions of a literate environment depend upon progress in development. Libraries, the press, the labour market and the post offices are powerful institutions for the promotion of literacy.

2.2.4 EVALUATING THE PROCESS AND THE PRODUCTS

Report of Group IV[1]

1. What is evaluation?

1.1 Evaluation

- Learning from past experiences for future action.
- Process of information gathering for decision making to improve action.
- Systematic and exact objectification of experiences in order to obtain reliable and valid information for decisions on future action.

Evaluation can be formal or informal.

- Formal evaluation makes judgement and decisions explicit. It also makes explicit the basis for these judgements and decisions.
- Informal evaluation may be regarded as the process of making judgements or decisions explicit without identifying the values, data, experience, theory and knowledge upon which they are based.

Most of our discussion in the group will be devoted to formal evaluation.

1.2 Evaluation in the context of curriculum development

- Curriculum is a course of study.
- Curriculum development is the elaboration of a course of study and accompanying course of action

  or
- Flexible planning and provision of all learning through appropriate media for a definite client group for the attainment of stated and obtainable objectives.

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[1] Group members were: Jacob Ilkiuyoni, Tanzania (Chairman)
Ouane Adama, Mali
Joe Dondo, Kenya
David Kahler, USA
Josef Müller, DSE/FRG (Rapporteur)

2. Purpose of evaluation in curriculum development

- Evaluation is always concerned in one way or another with the improvement of educational programmes.
- To measure/ascertain how far and how efficiently the curriculum provides learners with appropriate/essential learning materials and activities. Evaluation provides guidance both to the individual learner and to those responsible for the design and implementation of a curriculum.
- According to an alternative understanding of evaluation the purpose of evaluation is to observe, describe and interpret the sets of relations in a learning milieu thus clarifying the educational process rather than measuring it.

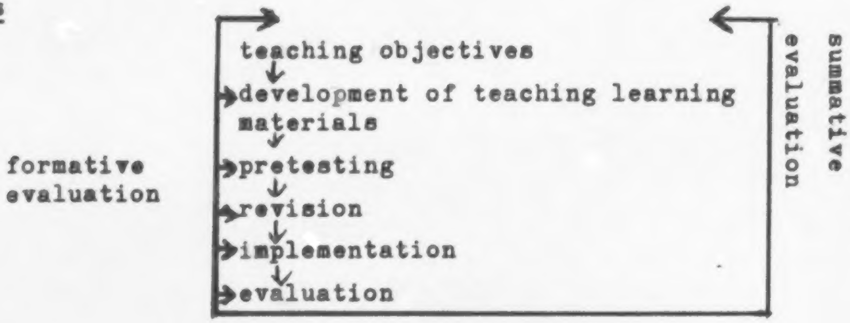
3. What to evaluate?

3.1 Inputs of a curriculum are

- objectives
- personnel
- data
  - . results of needs assessment
  - . results of task analysis
  - . results of learner analysis
  - . results of the study of milieux
- subject matter
- problem identification and setting of priorities

Evaluation in the context of curriculum development is concerned with the evaluation of the process as well as of the product.

3.2 Process


teaching objectives
development of teaching learning materials
pretesting
revision
implementation
evaluation
formative evaluation
summative evaluation

3.3 Products

teaching - learning activities of

- educational personnel
- learners

increase of knowledge
change of attitudes
development of skills

and

teaching learning materials

- student materials
- teacher handbooks
- visual aids
- methodology

For example:

Materials can be evaluated from a

practical point of view	and pedagogical point of view
- costs	- content vis à vis objectives
- flexibility, adaptability	- reliability, validity
- durability	- logical organization
- easy to use	- accuracy/suitability of language
- attractiveness	- appropriateness of illustrations
- adequateness of instructions	- appropriateness of sequencing
- easy replacement of parts	- transfer value

For example:

Indicators for the evaluation of content might be

- organization
- integration
- relevance
  - to instructional objectives
  - to learners and environment
- reliability (up-to-dateness)
- validity
- applicability
- balance
- sequencing

4. When to evaluate?

Evaluation may
- preceed
- accompany
- follow

the entire process of curriculum development as well as each of its components

4.1 The group felt that it is necessary to distinguish between internal and external evaluation.

While internal evaluation is more concerned with process and method of curriculum development, external evaluation focusses on the impact of the curriculum.

4.2 Formative evaluation involves the use of evaluation instruments and procedures at frequent intervals during the curriculum development process. It is undertaken during the development of

- the entire curriculum
- each of its components

to provide feedback to curriculum developers to improve the product while it is being developed and before it is finally released.

Summative evaluation is the assessment of the impact of the total curriculum thus comparing observed effects with anticipated or desired effects.

5. How to evaluate?

5.1 Collection of data

In order to evaluate the curriculum development process and product we need data. The data needed may be classified as

- judgemental data
- observational data
- performance data

For example:

Pretesting materials. Curriculum materials are ready for formative evaluation to provide feedback which will permit their revision and modification. At this point the curriculum developer needs to know precisely what needs to be revised as well as why and where the revision needs to be made.

To carry out this revision the curriculum developer requires

- judgemental data (e.g. expert opinion, subject matter specialists)
- observational data derived from actual use (e.g. observation by teachers, administrators, etc.)

- performance data (e.g. what kinds of learning take place when curriculum materials and methods are used properly).

Performance data is the most direct evidence for the effectiveness of a curriculum.

Collection and analysis of data has to correspond with the components of the curriculum development process to improve the curriculum from a practical as well as from a pedagogical point of view.

Tools for data collection

Data can be collected e.g. through

- base line surveys
- tests
- questionnaires (personal, group)
- observations
- interviews (personal, group)
- discussion
- dialogue

For example:

Appropriate tools/techniques for collection of data on evaluation of materials are

- tests for learners
- observations of
  - teachers'
  - learners'

  behaviour
- discussion
- dialogue

  with
  - educational personnel
  - community members/leaders
  - learners
- reports from
  - supervisors
  - educational personnel
  - community members/leaders
  - learners
- interviews with
  - supervisors
  - educational personnel
  - community members/leaders
  - learners

- expert judgement

5.2 Analysis and interpretation of data

In order to get information whether materials fulfill the practical and pedagogical criteria stated earlier one or more of the most appropriate tools/techniques have to be used. The use of those tools lead to a collection of data already to some extent organized by the character of tools used. The curriculum developer must be aware of the conceptual organization of that available data.

There will also be a need to know how to use available disaggregated data to reach new conclusions.

Approaches/methods of data analysis and interpretations are:

- visual analysis and interpretation
- statistical analysis, e.g.
  - descriptive statistics, e.g.
    - sampling
    - rating scales
    - frequency distribution
    - means
    - deviations
    - correlations
  - inferential statistics, e.g.
    - experimental groups
    - control groups

6. Who evaluates?

- Educational personnel
  - curriculum developers
  - teachers
  - illustrators
  - supervisors
- Experts
  - subject matter experts
  - linguists
  - curriculum developers
  - mass media specialists
- Community members
  - leaders
  - learners
- Administrators, officers, politicians, policy makers

7. Conclusion

The group felt that the participation of learners and community to recreate national plans in local settings was essential but the degree of that participation would be determined by the economic and socio-political conditions existing in the country.

The methodology and the technique of curriculum evaluation would depend on the broader context of changes as it is implicit in national ideology and policy.

2.3 Phase Three: The Monograph as a One Strategy for Improved Curriculum Development Practices

Discussions in the third phase of the seminar centred around three topics: strategies for the promotion of improved curriculum development practices and training as one possible strategy; recommendations for the proposed handbook on curriculum development in basic education and literacy programmes; and co-operation between the Federal Republic of Germany and the developing world in the fields of functional literacy and basic education.

In discussing strategies for the promotion of improved curriculum development practices the basic underlying assumption was that the existing situation is less than satisfactory. Seminar organizers also felt that such a discussion could provide them with a springboard for future activities.

Representatives of the German Foundation for International Development outlined future plans for test-in-use workshops using monographs from the series, Literacy in Development, and invited participation from East African countries in these activities.

Representatives of German assistance organizations, the Foreign Ministry, universities and foundations joined participants for broad ranging discussions which reviewed procedures for requesting German assistance with special education projects.

2.3.1 Strategies for Promoting Better Curriculum Development Practices:

In discussing curriculum development in more practical terms, seminar participants were asked to consider the following: "What should be a strategy for the promotion of better curriculum development practices?" and, "Is training one possible strategy for improved curriculum development practices?".

All agreed that functional literacy and curriculum development take place in a social and economical context which defines the type of strategy used. While talking of participation in formulating programmes and that the "voice of the mass" can make some input into shaping and reshaping concepts and national policy in curriculum development, one's view must be tempered with realism.

The general thrust of a programme must come from a national vision.

Participants felt that there was great hope for improvement in non-formal education practices as the field is not bound over to the formalizations that one finds in the formal school system.

There is an awareness of the need for information and the role of international organizations in assisting with the dissemination of information on curriculum development; with the exchange of technical information; and with the creation of channels of intercommunication which will result in an informed community of curriculum development workers.

Many participants stressed the importance of organizational power. It was felt that the power of technical organization was important as we not only need organizations which control, project and provide central thrust for curriculum development but also those that can do things such as National Boards of Education, National Institutes of Education, Adult Education Departments and State Resource Centres.

The need for institution building and creation of resources was noted as an additional aspect of organizational power. It was suggested that a primary role of international organizations could be in the area of agenda setting which would result in the creation of national entities functioning in the field of curriculum development in basic education.

Participants stressed the need for further development of intermediate organizations, allies in promoting literacy such as rural libraries and learning resource centres, as another aspect of organizational power.

There was concern that one not overlook the need to seek technical solutions, experiment with modular approaches, tools, appropriate technology, and develop people's materials designed by the learners themselves when discussing the broad area of organizational power.

Anti-organization actions were also thought necessary. Participants felt that once central institutions have been established, one might consider going in the opposite direction - de-institutionalizing and decentralizing. Such actions often provide for the creation of patterns and structures for participation, an instance wherein the national vision allows for local initiative.

Participants cautioned curriculum developers and planners not to forget the content of curriculum and the need for co-ordination with other agencies working in the field of adult education such as health and agricultural extension workers.

It was suggested that the best of all worlds could be achieved through a utopic imagination tempered with reality. Thousands of primers and texts and programme packages will mean nothing if all of those involved in administering the message created during the curriculum development process are not educated and trained in its functions and use. The development of effective and efficient curricula is only one element in the total educational process.

2.3.2 Recommendations for the Proposed Handbook on Curriculum Development in Non-formal Education

Panel participants recommended that the monograph present an open ended model or paradigm which would provide the opportunity for questionning rather than prescriptions for action. During the course of the seminar, panel participants reviewed a framework for curriculum development which had been designed during pre-seminar meetings. Although they did not discredit the work which had been done, participants felt that a model which was more flexible and open would have greater applicability to a wider variety of situations and settings.

It was suggested that care be taken to make optimal use of the case materials in developing the monograph. At a first reading one has a clear indication of the rich empirical data base which exists in the studies. Such a base would easily provide the opportunity of beginning from experience and building up rather than beginning with theory and working down.

Participants expressed concern that the monograph deal with curriculum development for teachers as well as for learners. Experience has shown that teacher acceptance of a curriculum is a crucial factor in its success or failure.

The monograph must give more attention to questions of participation, the implications of participation, its limitations and how participation in the educational process is developed.

It was suggested that the style of the monograph be informal and that use be made of new terminology wherever necessary. If need dictates, those compiling the monograph might want to consider the inclusion of a glossary where words would be explained in terms of descriptions, not just definitions.

Participants were of the opinion that evaluation in curriculum development should not be dealt with in depth in a single chapter or as a separate process but rather as an integral part of each step of the process.

Those compiling the monograph were cautioned to keep the monograph a modest document, one which would reflect a major concern of the seminar - that curriculum development is only one input, one element, in the educational process.

The case studies and the seminar proceedings were seen as representing the beginnings of an important dialogue on curriculum development in basic education and literacy training. Participants expressed the hope that the resultant monograph might be the vehicle for the extension of that dialogue to several thousand readers.

It was suggested that the seminar organizers consider the feasibility of using approaches similar to those used with the compilation of the curriculum development handbook for the creation of other monographs, especially on topics where the information base is limited and where content is diverse.

2.3.3 Cooperation between the Federal Republic of Germany and Developing Countries in the Field of Functional Literacy

The paragraphs which follow are a summary of discussion between participants, representatives of the German Foreign Ministry, representatives of foundations and universities engaged in educational development, and representatives of the German Adult Education Association and the Education and Science Branch of the German Foundation for International Development.

It was felt that German expertise in the fields of basic education and functional literacy could be of assistance to functional literacy programmes and projects in some important ways, for example, by creating and facilitating the exchange of experiences among Asian, African and Latin American countries in defining new issues and agenda setting thus contributing to the definition of new concerns and to the increase of professional knowledge.

Secondly, participants were of the opinion that the industrialized countries could promote institution building such as the establishment of learning resources centres at the national or regional level. Learning resource centres would not exhaust all institutional and organizational needs.

Thirdly, industrialized countries like the Federal Republic of Germany can provide elements of an infrastructure by providing materials such as printing machines, duplicating facilities, hardware for the use of mass media, paper, transport and technicians, thus becoming facilitators in the process of change and education.

When applying to industrialized countries such as the Federal Republic of Germany, those in charge of literacy or basic education programmes might take into account the fact that their proposals have to pass by national authorities first before being handed over to German Federal Ministries via the Embassies of the Federal Republic abroad.

Besides official channels of assistance, churches, foundations and other non-governmental organizations working overseas might be contacted directly for advise and assistance. German Cultural Institutes established in a number of Third World countries are willing to contribute towards an exchange of information in promoting and developing effective strategies in education and social change.

SECTION 3: POST SEMINAR ACTIVITIES

Curriculum Development in Non-formal Education:

Outline of a Handbook

by

Anita Dighe and David Kahler

SECTION 3: CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT FOR NON-FORMAL EDUCATION

Outline of a Handbook

by

Anita Dighe and David Kahler

Chapter I: The Dynamics of Curriculum Development

- A. The politics of curriculum
  - 1. The socio-political context of curriculum development
  - 2. Basic education and functional literacy as education for modernization
- B. The process of curriculum development
  - 1. Developing a course of study
  - 2. Developing a course of action
  - 3. The vocabulary of curriculum development
- C. The monograph
  - 1. Purposes and origins
  - 2. Organization
  - 3. The use of models and paradigms

Chapter II: A Paradigm for Curriculum Development

- A. The curriculum developer reinvents national objectives and plans at the local level.
- B. The curriculum developer assesses learner needs through the creation of a dialogical process.
- C. The curriculum developer facilitates the reconciliation of national needs with regional and local needs.
- D. The curriculum developer identifies the inter-relationships between needs networks and establishes priorities.
- E. The curriculum developer formulates teaching/learning objectives thus converting learner needs into learning needs.
- F. The curriculum developer translates teaching/learning objectives into teaching/learning materials and activities.
- G. The curriculum developer designs participative training materials and strategies for teacher training thus facilitating the implementation of curricula.
- H. The curriculum developer examines the process of curriculum development at each of its stages.

Chapter III: The Paradigm in its' Socio-Cultural Context
(An explanation of how the paradigm has been used, both well and poorly, in the real world of the ten case studies. In doing so, modifications and truncations of the paradigm will be highlighted.)

Chapter IV: Critical Issues in Implementing Curricula

- A. Teacher training
  - 1. Teacher training as unlearning
  - 2. Teacher training as inventing new instructional roles
  - 3. The role of evaluation in teacher training
- B. Issues in choice of language for literacy
- C. Organizational power
- D. Pre- and post-literacy activities

Chapter V: Pitfalls in Participation

- A. What is participation?
- B. Kinds of participation
- C. Participation in curriculum development
- D. Participation in its political context
- E. Strategies for more effective participation

Chapter VI: A Postscript on Evaluation

- A. Evaluation as a continuous activity
- B. Evaluation's function in identifying new possibilities for action
- C. Evaluation as validation

4. ANNEXES

4.1 Suggestions and Guidelines for the Preparation of Case Studies

4.2 Progress Report on the Series "Literacy in Development"
by H.S. Bhola, Series Editor

4. ANNEXES

4.1 Suggestions to Authors of Case Studies

The criteria and guidelines proposed below are suggestive rather than prescriptive. Their purpose is to give help to authors in selecting, organizing and presenting materials.

Criteria for Project Selection

1. The programme under consideration should have been in operation for at least three years.
2. Adequate documentation, including evaluation studies, should be available.
3. The programme should be large enough that results obtained may be generalized to other projects.
4. It should be small enough to be manageable. If a national project is chosen, one might want to deal with a regional division of it, or perhaps one subject area of the project.
5. The programme should have been conceived as part of a broader rural development effort.
6. It should have produced results that could be instructive in the design of future projects.

Guidelines for the Preparation of Case Studies

The total length of the case study, excluding annexes, should not exceed 80 pages. One might wish to organize the case study in the following manner:

Section I: Background of the Project

This section should comprise 15 to 20 pages. Its purpose is to provide the reader with the history and the background of the project. The following points might be considered:

1. How and when did the project originate? When was the project/programme first mentioned in records?
2. What mating of ideas led to the creation of such a programme/project?
3. What do you think are the historical and political antecedents of this project?
4. How is the project administered and financed?
5. What are the demographical and socio-economic characteristics of the target area?
6. What are the socio-economic characteristics of the target group?
7. What innovations in instruction, organization or other aspects of the project were introduced?
8. What are the general and specific objectives to the project?

Section II: Assessing the Needs of the Target Group

Often the general nature of a project is determined on the basis of existing knowledge of needs and development activities. But before instructional materials are developed, it is usually considered necessary to consult with the "target population". The purpose of the consultation may be to determine the state of existing knowledge, attitudes, practices and skills. From this information, a set of priority educational objectives may be determined. We are requesting that you describe how the process of "needs of assessment" was carried out in the project under review. This section of the case study should be approximately 20 to 30 pages. In developing it, we would like for you to focus your attention on the following questions:

1. How was the needs assessment done?
2. How much time was devoted to this phase?
3. What tools were used to collect the data? (include sample questions or interview schedules, if possible)
4. Who constructed the data collection tools?
5. Who constructed the needs assessment?
6. How was the data collected and analyzed?
7. What were the major findings of this phase?
8. What problems were identified for inclusion in the curriculum building process?
9. To what extent did the findings of the needs assessment modify, improve or replace the previously determined project objectives?

Section III: Curriculum Design and Materials Production

The remaining pages of the case study, 30 to 40 pages, should deal with the question of curriculum design. The purpose of this section is to identify the process and procedures that were involved in creating the curriculum. By curriculum we mean the system of instructional materials developed for the learners, the system of guidance provided to the teachers as well as the instruments which were used to assess the effectiveness of both of the above. In developing this section, we would ask that you first select one specific theme. For example, civic education, drinking water, health education, introduction of new seed varieties, political education and show how instructional materials relating to this theme were prepared. We are asking you to describe how it was actually done. We request that you translate, present and explain actual material.

If there were two versions of the material - an earlier one and a later, improved one - both forms might be used to explain the curriculum building process. We would then ask you to give your attention to the following questions:

1. What type of curriculum was used and why?
2. How much time was given to this phase?
3. Who participated in this phase?
4. What principles were kept in view in the curriculum building phase?
5. What aspects of the process do you consider to have been innovative?
6. What testing and evaluation procedures were used in developing materials?
7. What significant lessons have been gained from your experiences which may be applied to related projects in your country or another Asian state?

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4.2 A Progress Report on the Series "Literacy in Development"

FACTS ABOUT THE SERIES

Literacy in Development is a series of training monographs and is addressed to middle-level literacy workers, tutors in adult education institutes and lecturers of teacher training colleges in the Third World.

The series has been commissioned by the International Institute for Adult Literacy Methods, P.O.Box 1555, Teheran, Iran. It is the brain-child of Dr. John W. Ryan, the Director of the Teheran Institute.

The series is edited by H.S. Bhola, Professor of Education at Indiana University at Bloomington, Indiana, United States of America.

Typically, a monograph is first published in English and then translated in other languages. The publishers of the series are the following:

Arabic: Arab Literacy and Adult Education Organization (ARLO),
1, Shihab Street, Dokki-Giza, Arab Republic of Egypt.

English: Hulton Educational Publications Limited,
Raans Road, Amersham, Buckinghamshire HP6 6JJ,
England

French:	Conseil Régional pour l'Education et l'Alphabêtisation des Adultes en Afrique (CREAA), a.b.s. du Service national d'alphabêtisation, Ministère des Affaires Sociales, Lomé, Togo.
Spanish:	Oficina de Educación, Iberoamericana (OEI), Ciudad Universitaria, Madrid 3, Spain

The current status of the titles in the series is as follows:

(A) Published: Available in Arabic, English and Spanish

The use of radio in adult literacy education,
by Richard C. Burke

Programmed instruction for literacy workers,
by S. Thiagarajan

Learning to read and reading to learn: an approach to a literacy instruction,
by Sohan Singh

(B) Published: Available in English and Spanish

The ABCs of literacy: lessons from linguistics,
by Kenneth L. Baucom

(C) Prepared for publication

Towards scientific literacy,
by Frederick J. Thomas and Allan K. Kondo

Evaluating functional literacy,
by H.S. Bhola

Visual literacy in communication: designing for development,
by Anne Zimmer and Fred Zimmer

(D) Titles at various stages of preparation but not yet available

Literacy and life-long education for women,
by Marian A. Halvorson

The use of the press in literacy promotion,
by Renán Flores Jaramillo

Games and simulations in literacy training,
by David R. Evans

The training of literacy trainers,
by Paula Campos de Rozsavolgyi and John W. Ryan

Rural public libraries,
by E.C. Shaw

The process of primer construction,
by Ernest W. Lee

Experiences in curriculum development in functional literacy,
by David Kahler, Anita Dighe, and others

The use of television in adult literacy,
by Jesús Garcia Jiménez

Reading materials for new readers: why? what? and how?,
by H.S. Bhola

Literacy education as an integrated experience,
by Eugenio Rodriguez

Teaching words and ideas to adults,
by Edgar Dale

Planning, organizing and mobilizing for literacy action,
by H.S. Bhola

The ABCs of literacy: lessons from anthropology,
by Achola O. Pala

The ABCs of literacy: lessons from psychology

The ABCs of literacy: lessons from the policy sciences

As the list indicates, most titles on the list have been assigned to authors.

Some further titles are being developed. A monograph is being planned on the organization of literacy in urban settings. Another title is being planned on folk media and indigenous institutions for instruction in Third World communities. There may also be a monograph on the teaching of numeracy.

THE FIRST RETURNS

What progress can be reported in regard to the fulfillment of the intended purposes of the series? What are the first returns?

A variety of personal estimates of the success and of the potential of the series have become available in the form of personal comments made in conversations, in letters written to the series editor and to Director Ryan of the International Institute of Adult Literacy Methods in Teheran. Some expert estimates of individual monographs have become available in the form of reviews published in adult educational journals in England, America, Canada, India, and elsewhere. The series has not got all the votes cast but the first returns are certainly as good as could be expected.

Two other kinds of estimates can be made of the series, Literacy in Development, to evaluate progress in the accomplishment of the purposes of the series. One would be a conceptual estimate; another would be a functional estimate.

A conceptual estimate

By a conceptual estimate, I mean, an evaluation of the conceptual basis of the series. What were the assumptions on which the series was based? How were the various elements of the series elaborated. How were decisions made about approaches and treatments? What patterns of use were anticipated? How were answers to these questions different today from those developed some three years ago? Has hindsight been comforting or cruel?

Assumptions restated

The series resulted from the following set of assumptions:

1. Literacy work in most places in the world was an enterprise of commitment but this commitment was not always accompanied by competence.

2. About the only way literacy workers were learning was through trial and error, on the job and at great social costs.

2.1 The World countries where training in literacy work was most needed did not have training institutions that could train the needed manpower. Training available under the sponsorship of governmental and voluntary organizations was sporadic, inadequate and ad hoc.

2.2 Literacy workers were unable to teach themselves independently by reading books and manuals for the simple reason that no such literature was available on the subjects of literacy theory, planning, organization, methodology, or evaluation. Whatever was available was either theoretical or too descriptive. Most of the time it was fugitive literature - inaccessible, even though published.

A series of monographs on the subject of literacy that could be used both for self-study and as basic documentation for training workshops and seminars seemed an obvious need. The publication of monographs would not solve all problems of literacy but would increase the probability that those who read this material could improve their performance by making better programm decisions.

For the middle-level literacy worker

The series was addressed to the middle-level literacy worker in functional literacy. The definition of the middle-level literacy worker proved quite elusive. We knew perhaps what a middle-level literacy was not, but not always what he or she was.

In working with the authors bilaterally and in international expert panels (we will describe the function of panels below in greater detail), we realized that the middle-level literacy worker was a residual category. He was not a top-level decision maker in the planning commission or the central ministry of education or the national directorate of adult education who made national and/ or regional plans and approved budget allocations. On the other hand, he was not the person who worked directly with adult farmers or workers within one particular community. He was a man in the middle, making decisions on implementation of programmes, design of local plans, writing materials and evaluating the impact of programmes.

We have found that the "middle" in the body of professional workers in functional literacy keeps on shifting with each particular monograph. The middle in the case of the monograph on the use of radio in functional literacy is different from the middle in the case of the monograph on literacy evaluation.

Experience tells us, however, that this middle-level category does indeed exist and we have found, to our pleasure, that its demography is more varied than we had thought. The users for these monographs have been found in universities, in teacher training colleges and among those who were not interested in literacy per se but were engaged in nonformal education, extension and development.

While these monographs have been addressed to the middle-level literacy workers, happily some in the upper echelons of development education, adult education and literacy management are also reading them. International experts and secretary-generals who examine these materials for use within their projects by their "subordinate" colleagues are known to have learned from the materials!

We are glad to say, however, that the monographs have not all been sold to university students and college tutors. It would have been a matter of regret if we succeeded too well with our secondary clients and not much with our primary clients - middle-level literacy workers in the Third World actually engaged in functional literacy work. Fortunately, our primary clients are receiving the materials and profiting from these materials.

In behalf of the professional community

We look at this as a series done in behalf of the professional community of functional literacy workers all over the world, and as far as possible done by them and evaluated by them.

We have, therefore, thrown our net wide and invited authors from developing countries to contribute manuscripts to the series. This has not always been easy to do. In developing countries of Asia, Africa and Latin America trained manpower is at premium. Well trained people always seem to have more important, more practical, and more urgent things to do than sit down and write monographs!

Wherever we have chosen authors from outside the Third World, you will find people who have committed long years of their professional lives to working in the Third World. Irrespective of the passports they carry, they are Third World people by experience, sentiment and acculturation.

The series is international in the sense that it projects the experiences, from all the world over - from East and West Africa, from Latin America, from the Arab States and Asia.

Most importantly, development of the series as well as the individual monographs was reviewed by international expert panels composed of literacy workers, policy makers, project managers, technicians and practitioners. Three such panels have been held: one in Berlin (West) in 1975; another in Dizine, Iran in 1976; and a third in Cuenca, Spain in 1978. The control of the aims and purposes of the series as well as its elaboration has thus been guided by the community of professional workers in whose behalf the series is being designed and produced.

There were doubts expressed by some of our colleagues early in the project about ability or the feasibility of writing monographs for the whole world. We have learned that this can be done. We have not promoted ideologies, and we have not talked of the one best way. We have offered a set of tools. We have not sought to supply prescriptions which, by definition, would be absurd.

Practical ideas, conceptually organized

The monographs present practical ideas, but not mere descriptions and reports of projects. Of course, case studies of projects and strategies that succeeded or failed are an important source of learning. We have indeed used actual experiences of peoples all over the world to make our points in these monographs. However, our organization is conceptual. Social scientific knowledge about planning, management, instruction and evaluation is presented together with directions as to how it can be put to work in the service of literacy. The monographs try to put theory into practice. We realize, on the one hand, that practitioners do not need abstraction. On the other hand, we realize that conceptualization is the only beast of burden which can be used to carry experience from one cultural reality to another.

The monographs are carefully edited. Some of those already published have been heavily edited and extensively re-written.

Many of the manuscripts have also been tested in what we have called test-in-use workshops. We have taken a mansucript to a training workshop to test the organization and treatment of the monograph while, at the same time providing training to a project or a national programme. The monograph Evaluating functional literacy now being copy-edited and monographs by Burke (on the use of radio in literacy work), Singh (on learning to read), and Zimmer and Zimmer (on visual literacy and currently with the printers) have been all pre-tested in test-in-use workshops.

Feedback on use and usefulness

The ultimate test of the monograph series is, of course, their use and their usefulness in improving performance of functional literacy workers. This sort of a functional estimate is, however, by no means easy to make. How does one find out and weigh the impact a book might have had on the reader which then was translated into better decisions and greater instructional, economic and social dividends?

We have to fall back on the testimony of colleagues in the professional community and on unobstrusive measures such as demand, reference and quotation. The first returns on this count have, again, been more than satisfactory.